

Childhood Education

The Magazine
for Teachers
of Children

To Stimulate Thinking
Rather Than
Advocate Fixed Practices

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Next Year—

1947-48 issues will give consideration to some modern school practices in terms of their contribution to the development of democratic citizens.

Time schedules, class size, grouping and promotion practices, school marks and the evaluation of achievement, remedial instruction and readiness for learning will be analyzed.

The September issue will be devoted to consideration of how some of the present practices came to be and the May issue will conclude the year with emphasis upon the international horizon.

Materials of instruction and equipment, teachers as leaders, and community associates and activities—their effects upon the development of democratic citizens—constitute the themes for three other issues. 'Educational Practices and the Democratic Character'—the theme for next year—should throw new light on old problems and suggest some solutions.

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Photograph by Louise Gross

**Children are social beings who absorb the ways
of the world as they experience them.**

Must Our Children Be Sociologists?

MUST CHILDREN BE SOCIOLOGISTS? A SCORNFUL CRITIC ONCE asked this question, implying that children were being pushed beyond their playful province by those who attached social significance to what was heard, read and done in the days of childhood.

That we cannot prevent children from being sociologists in an embryonic way is one answer to the question. Children are social beings who absorb in significant fashion the ways of the world as they experience them. Even in early childhood such non-social behavior as snatching, pushing, resisting routines and authority are children's methods of discovering essential likenesses and differences in human beings.

Nor, of course, does experimentation cease when a child goes forth to view the world. He copies the ways of his community and his country. He devises his own methods of getting along, of attracting self notice, of finding a warm place for himself in his family and in his group. Normally, too, he learns to fend for himself to some extent. He finds through experiment his own strength by matching his powers with those of others and by observing the infinite potentialities of people to create, to conquer, to cooperate.

The child is no less a sociologist when he learns more with the heart than with the mind. Indeed some of the social lessons impressed by early emotions are the most potent of his life time. They form the basis and springboard for intellectual study of social forces of the present and historical trends of the past.

A NOTHER ANSWER TO THE CYNICS' QUESTION is, yes. The future peace and well being of the world depend on children being sociologists and good ones, now, in childhood. This generation born to a world of strife, insecurity, and shortages has a hazardous social field in which to experiment with concepts of human living. Hate, revenge and prejudice—the heritages of war—threaten the fulfillment of our ideal of the brotherhood of man. Fear and thwarting obstruct the expansion of potential prowess to achieve. And differences between races, nationalities, and religious beliefs turn up as obstructions rather than as promoters of human progress.

Our tasks are to recognize those problems which children can handle and to build in their minds and hearts the concepts of integrity with which to deal with them despite the handicaps of the present social scene. There is nothing more important for the future of the world than that this be done.

IT WOULD BE COWARDLY AND IMPRACTICAL to place our full hope of world reconstruction on the shoulders of the young sociologists and expect them to carry on world affairs "better than our generation has done." The moral is that we must be good sociologists ourselves. With the time that remains to us we must spare no effort to make this a good world in which to live with people of all nations, creeds, and colors. With our best understanding we must rear children in ways of peace and well-being. Only by working at both ends of the scale of human life can we achieve the task before us.—WINIFRED E. BAIN, *President, Wheelock College and Chairman, Board of Editors.*

What Is a Classic?

ABRAHAM LINCOLN IS AS GREAT A CLASSIC AS HE WAS A great American. Take for instance these words of his, seldom quoted:

It is not merely for the day, but for all time to come that we should perpetuate for our children's children that great and free government which we have enjoyed all our lives. I beg you to remember this not merely for my sake but for yours.

I happen temporarily to occupy this big White House. I am a living witness that any one of your children may look to come here as my father's child has.

It is in order that each of you may have through this free government which we have enjoyed, an open field and a fair chance for your industry, enterprise and intelligence; that you may have equal privileges in the race of life with all its desirable human aspirations; that we may not lose our birthrights—it is for this that the struggle should be maintained. The nation is worth fighting for to secure such an inestimable jewel.

Quoted from an address by ANDRE MICHALOPOULOS, published in *Talks*, January 1947.

By I. JAMES QUILLE

What Are the Social Concepts To Be Developed in Children?

"Social concepts to be developed in children should be selected on the basis of their social significance and persistence, and the maturity and environment of the children being taught," says Mr. Quillen, professor of education, Stanford University, California. He names six basic social concepts for which all people of the modern world should have common meanings and which the school has a responsibility to develop.

THE NATURE OF CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY

THE SOCIAL CONCEPTS TO BE DEVELOPED in children are selected necessarily from the total range of social concepts which are used to describe the society of which the school and the child are a part. Hence, the determination of these concepts should begin with an analysis of the nature and basic trends of contemporary society. Sociologists, in describing the current scene, stress the fact that we are in a period of transition from a rural-handicraft, highly local and self-dependent culture where most basic decisions were made in primary groups to an urban-machine, highly specialized and interdependent culture where basic decisions are made by representatives of secondary groups established in great national and world economic and political centers far removed from localities in which most people live.

One of the most significant factors in the shift from primary to secondary groups as the basis of societal organization is the change from perceptual to conceptual thought processes as the basis for social judgment and action. In the families, villages and towns of a rural-handicraft culture, face-to-face

relationships are intimate and intensive. The content employed in critical thinking is highly perceptual, based on the senses of sight, sound, touch, taste and smell. This perceptual content is acquired largely not through a formal educative institution such as the school but as a result of the direct experiences of children and adults in their immediate environment. In the mass associations and organizations of an urban-machine culture relationships are largely impersonal and anonymous. The content of critical thinking tends to be conceptual, based on the manipulation of verbal symbols, often abstract and loaded with emotional charges of considerable potency.

Conceptualization, unlike perceptualization, cannot safely be left to the exigencies of direct experience. Even if that were desirable, the presence of mass agencies of communication in our culture makes it impossible. Those who have access to these mind-forming agencies often seek to give meaning to commonly used social concepts which serve their own rather than the common welfare. Hence, it is necessary that the school, as an instrument of the total cultural group, develop in the young common meanings for the essen-

tial social concepts through which current decisions affecting poverty and plenty, pain and pleasure, death and life are now being made. This task requires first the selection of the social concepts that should be developed in children and then the establishment of an educational environment and the employment of techniques of teaching and learning which will develop common, deep, and usable meanings for the concepts selected.

THE SELECTION OF BASIC SOCIAL CONCEPTS

Social concepts to be developed in children should be selected on the basis of their social significance and persistence and the maturity and environment of the children being taught. Using these criteria for the United States as a whole and for children in the elementary school, the following concepts have been selected for illustrative purposes: (1) man's common humanity, (2) the nature of culture, (3) cultural change (4) specialization and interdependence, (5) the nature of democracy, (6) the concept of progress. It is believed that these are basic social concepts for which all people of the modern world should have common meanings and which the school has a responsibility to develop.

Man's Common Humanity

Two of the major problems in the modern world are the securing of mutual respect between people and groups and the achievement of unity amidst diversity. These problems raise questions concerning the concept of human equality and the nature of man's common humanity. Both of these concepts are related. As an absolute minimum men are, by definition, equal in that

they possess the characteristics that make them human and, in turn, these common human characteristics form a realistic basis for the development of a common humanity.

The characteristics that all human beings possess as members of the homo sapiens species include: (1) a highly developed cortex which makes possible extensive learning and complex thought processes; (2) a highly developed larynx making possible the creation and oral use of language; (3) an opposable thumb and well developed hands making possible the intricate manipulation and extensive transformation of the resources of the natural environment; (4) an erect posture freeing the hands for use; and (5) a prolonged childhood during which the human being is dependent and malleable making possible the transmittal of an extensive cultural heritage.

These characteristics provide the basis for human equality, mutual respect and the development of a common humanity. They also make it possible for man to build and transmit culture.

The Nature of Culture

Man is the culture builder. Cultures are the product of human behavior and they, in turn, shape human behavior. Man's brain, language, craftsmanship and capacity to learn make highly developed cultures possible. Anthropologists now define culture as the learned behavior which man acquires as the result of living in a particular group and the material and non-material products of that behavior.

Culture results from human beings seeking to satisfy their needs by carrying out the basic functions of living in a geographic environment. As culture

develops, a tradition emerges which then becomes an important factor in further culture building. Culture results from: (1) man's biological organism; (2) his geographic environment; and (3) his tradition. When children understand the concept of culture, they have a basis for interpreting their own behavior and the behavior of others. Differences in behaving of people in other cultures become more understandable and, when it is understood that culture is inherited after birth rather than before, the possibility of improvement through cultural change becomes better appreciated.

Cultural Change

Cultural change occurs in all human groups. It results from invention from within and borrowing from without. Invention is conditioned by the level of culture achieved by a group, the pressure of social demand, and the existence of the inventor. A highly developed culture which places a high valuation on invention and which has effective means for educating inventors is likely to change rapidly. Both invention from within and borrowing from without are affected by cultural interaction which itself is affected by the degree of urbanization and the rapidity of transportation and communication.

When children know the nature of cultural change, they can understand why our culture is changing rapidly and why it is likely to change even more rapidly in the future. They can comprehend the present incoordination between the changes in the material and non-material aspects of contemporary culture and the need for developing group arrangements that will achieve a wider realization of democratic values in a rapidly changing culture.

Specialization and Interdependence

Science as applied to technology is the major force transforming modern culture. Its most characteristic expression is mass production in the factory. Mass production is made possible by specialization and standardization of parts. The greater the specialization the greater the possibilities for standardization and mass production. As Adam Smith points out in his *Wealth of Nations*, specialization, which he called division of labor, is directly related to the size of the market; the larger the market the greater the opportunity for specialization and, consequently, mass production. Thus the pressure of the desire for mass production in the factory has resulted in the extension of the area of specialization until it is now world-wide.

Specialization inevitably brings interdependence and interdependence requires agencies of planning and control that comprehend the area it covers. This is the reason that national specialization and interdependence have brought increasing responsibilities and new agencies to the federal government. It is the reason why effective international agencies must now be developed if world-wide peace, prosperity, and human happiness are to be achieved. Thus an understanding of the concepts of specialization and interdependence by children provides a foundation for a clearer understanding of national and world problems and the need for national and international co-operation and action.

The Nature of Democracy

As specialization and interdependence become world-wide and greater authority is exercised by national and international action, the nature of

democracy both as a method of government and a way of life needs to be clarified. This is especially true because of the cruciality of contemporary problems and the threat of totalitarianism to the ideals that believers in democracy hold dear.

There is widespread agreement among educators that democratic values involve: (1) the recognition of the infinite value of the individual and mutual respect; (2) the willingness and ability to cooperate in the solution of common problems and the promotion of common concerns; and (3) the willingness and ability to use intelligence and reason in the solution of social problems and in the achievement of social goals. These tenets are an elaboration of the older symbols of liberty, equality, and fraternity. They rest on a faith that men possess reason and good-will and that they are capable of sharing in cooperative purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating—that they have the capacity to be self-disciplined and self-directive, to select able representatives, and to judge the actions of these representatives in the formation and execution of the policies desired by the majority of the voters.

Concept of Progress

Faith in a value system or way of life generally rests on the hope for a better future—a faith in progress. In the United States this has been called the American Dream and the Mission of America. If democracy is to continue, both young and old must have faith that if we have mutual respect, cooperate and use reason, then we can successfully solve problems and achieve progress. Man has infinite potentialities. His individual differences make

possible a wide range of achievement. Specialization makes possible the fullest use of individual differences. The democratic way of life offers equality of opportunity to develop and use individual capacities to the fullest. Democracy provides for unity amidst diversity. Its ideal is continuous progress toward peace, prosperity and the brotherhood of man. Children need to get a vision of the possibilities of progress that technology and democracy offer for a better and a happier world.

LEARNING SOCIAL CONCEPTS

The development of abstract social concepts in children is a gradual and continuous process extending over a considerable period of time. The first step in the building of concepts is the acquisition of percepts based on direct experience. These percepts are gradually organized into more inclusive verbal symbols which are then used to describe and think about further concrete experience. As the child develops in maturity, the meaning of more and more abstract concepts will be acquired. The available research seems to show that for most children satisfactory meanings for most abstract concepts are not developed before the sixth or seventh grades.

As students have direct experiences, they should use the social concepts that describe such experiences. For example, when they are using democratic classroom organization, the concept "democracy" should be used to name the organization. When responsibilities are assigned among the members of the class on the basis of special competence, the procedure should be named as an example of "specialization and interdependence." As elementary school teachers guide children in learning ex-

periences in such areas as home, school, neighborhood, community, state, nation and world, generalizations and understandings should be developed that give meaning to a wider and wider range of social concepts. As an example, the following generalizations have been selected from a longer list prepared recently by the author:

Communities are made up of many people doing many different kinds of work.

People living in communities depend on each other and on other communities.

The work of the community is made easier by the use of tools, machines, and many kinds of techniques.

Social organization makes it possible for many people to cooperate in the satisfaction of needs.

The government of the community assists in protection, sanitation, recreation, education, and many other ways.

The geographic environment affects community living in many ways: location, recreation, ways of earning a living, transportation, clothing, housing, fuel, food, and the like.

All communities have histories which help to explain their ways of living.

All communities are changing.

Changes in tools and techniques affect ways of living.

Everyone has a responsibility for making the community a desirable place in which to live.

We should become acquainted with community workers and officials and cooperate with them in the improvement of community life.¹

These generalizations are for use by eight-year-olds in a study of their community. Similar generalizations could be developed with all age groups and should be articulated vertically—that

is, related developmentally so that the child is continuously developing more accurate and deeper meanings for more and more key concepts used in social living.

It cannot be said that the meaning of any abstract social concept is ever fully developed. Take, for example, such a relatively concrete concept as money. To the young child pennies and money may be synonymous. Later the different kinds of money may be understood. By the time the child reaches the junior high school, he may be able to keep a simple budget, figure interest, and make other types of computation involving money. In the senior high school the nature of banking, credit and other financial factors may be understood. In the college the laws developed by social scientists concerning money may be studied, but it may be that the more the student learns about the nature of money and its use the less sure he becomes of ever fully understanding it.

Hence, the task that confronts the teacher in the development of the meaning of basic social concepts is: (1) to select the key concepts to be emphasized; (2) provide experiences involving the use of these concepts on each developmental level; and (3) guide students in using basic concepts so that they more and more fully comprehend their meaning as applied to living in their immediate environments and in the manifold experiences of an interdependent world.

¹ For *Social Education for Young Children*. Mary Willcockson, editor. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1946. Page 24.

YOU HAVE SEEN BUT A SMALL PART OF WHAT the mechanic sciences can perform. I have been long of opinion, that, instead of the tardy conveyance of ships and chariots, man might use the swiftest migration of wings; that the fields of air are open to knowledge, and that only ignorance and idleness need crawl upon the ground.—SAMUEL JOHNSON, *Rasselas* (1759).

By JOHN T. ROBINSON

Developing Social Intelligence in Children

Through illustrations of school experiences Mr. Robinson shows how children can learn about themselves, understand better their relationships to other children and adults, and develop concepts that contribute to their social intelligence. Mr. Robinson is a staff consultant, Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools, American Council on Education, New York City.

CHILDREN EVERYWHERE—IN SCHOOL and out—face the need for making decisions regarding their relationships with other people and for acting upon these decisions. The basis upon which they make these decisions is formed by their experiences with others, a large part of which the school supplies. The question is, what experiences shall we provide for children as a basis for understanding themselves and their relationship to others and as opportunities for developing social skills to implement these understandings? As teachers we must inspect what we teach and how we teach it to see what meaning about human beings and their relationships we develop with children. We cannot escape developing some meanings and we need to be sure they are the best we can develop.

Children Need to Learn About Themselves and Their Relationships To Other Children

During an activity period seven boys and two girls chose to build with blocks. Each attempted to build his own house. It soon became apparent that there were not enough boards and corner blocks for seven houses. Voluntarily the children formed three groups and began to build three houses.

"Teacher, there ain't no more blocks!" "Give us some more blocks for the roof!" "He's got all the blocks!" caused the teacher to call for a discussion of these complaints. She inquired of the boys and girls what they might do since there were not enough blocks to build three houses.

"Get some more boards," was the general consensus.

The teacher explained that there were no more and that they would have to do with what they had. One group agreed to divide its blocks between the other two groups and to join them in house building. Two houses were now in process.

Since the blocks must be used by another group in the afternoon the teacher pointed out that only one of the houses could remain standing. The one most nearly finished was chosen by the children.

When the afternoon group saw the almost finished house of the morning group, it decided to build a house, too. From the available blocks the walls for a two-room house were erected and left standing.

The next day the morning group lacked a few boards to finish its house. At first the children wanted to take the

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needed boards from the partially completed house of the afternoon group. The teacher pointed out that the afternoon group had not taken boards from their house. "Can you think of another way to finish your house?" she asked.

"We can give them some of our boards and they can give us some of theirs," said one.

"We can make the kitchen and the afternoon group can make the bedroom," suggested another.

The teacher agreed to discuss this second proposal with the afternoon group. "Would you like to cooperate with the morning group in constructing a house which both can use?" She explained that when two groups decide to make something and each group does its share of the making, the two groups cooperate with each other.

The afternoon group agreed to "cooperate". Each group completed and furnished its room. The house was ready for occupancy and each group took turns playing in it.¹

Constructing a play-house of blocks is fun for five-year-olds. It has some value in and of itself. The construction also involves social learning—the meaning of one's relationship to others in a group and ways of handling those relationships. Miss Hardiman wanted to help these children acquire a functional concept of "cooperation"—know what it is, how it works and how individuals must behave in order that it can work. The block building venture provided an excellent opportunity for the children to experience cooperation.

What is involved in helping children develop such understanding and skill?

First, there were the purposes of the

children which they understood and which captured their interest—they wanted to build a house to play in.

Second, problems were allowed to arise which blocked these purposes. The teacher knew that there were not enough blocks to build seven houses or even two houses. She might have suggested that some children do something else or explained that they could build only one house. She permitted the problem to arise before a solution was sought.

Third, the teacher explored alternate ways of solving the problem with the children themselves, pointing out needed information upon which to base the decision for possible solution. Solving the problem by cooperative effort brought satisfaction to those concerned.

Fourth, the teacher helped the children to articulate the processes used in solving the problem so that they could generalize the processes into the concept of "cooperation" and see clearly which relationships with other children were involved.

A single experience is not enough to develop a clear functional understanding of cooperation as social behavior. Understanding and skill become sharpened by using them in a wide variety of activities.

It needs to be pointed out also that false concepts are too often learned in classrooms. Particular attention must be given to what is done in relation to the understandings and skills that are developing. If children "cooperate" when they merely do obediently what the teacher tells them to do, they are not learning cooperation. If the teacher labels such "doing" cooperation she is fooling herself and developing a false notion of cooperation in the children.

¹A project carried out by the kindergarten pupils of Ruth Hardiman, Gilpin School, Denver, Colorado.

It is important that all means used are consistent with the purposes.

Children Need to Learn About Their Relationships to Adults

As in learning about themselves, young children must learn about their relationships to adults through primary contacts with them. Adult family members and workers in the community are real people to them. The stereotyped families so often found in children's books—the mother is *always* pleasant, the father is *never* tired, the children are *always* perfect—do not teach much about family relations and offer practically no aid in developing any understanding or skill in managing relationships in this important primary group.

Some seven-year-olds talked about who earned a living for their families and how their occupations affected them. When their fathers or mothers left for work and when they returned home determined when the children had breakfast and dinner, when they could play, when they could spend time with their parents, and what consideration they gave to the adults in the family.

The children read stories about other families and discussed how the work of the family members affected their lives together. Some of their relationships to their fathers are shown in their writing:

My daddy works at
He is home in the summer. We like to have him home. Ho! Ho! Do we ever like to have him home. He likes us and we like him.

My daddy travels. My sister wants to go with him. But she can't. But she wants to.

My daddy works at
He comes home at five o'clock in the night.
I can play with him sometimes.

My daddy does not like to listen to my programs. Sometimes he has to.*

The study of real families—their work and living—helps children understand some of their relationships to adults. Several criteria for the selection and development of such study need to be observed:

Relationships that are real and interesting to the children need to be chosen for content. In an area of study such as the family, the teacher must select those relationships that have meaning to the children.

The study itself needs to focus around a general idea which permits interpretation and generalization. That the relationships of children to adults in a family are affected by the way the family lives was the focusing idea for the discussions of the seven-year-olds described above.

That children may develop an understanding of this idea, a particular relationship should be selected for concrete description and study. The work done by family members and its effect on the relationships of the children and adults were the particular relationships selected for concrete study quoted above.

The descriptions should be varied enough to show different ways in which the relationship is affected. Both real experiences of the group members and vicarious experiences can be utilized to give the necessary scope to these descriptions. For example, in studying community helpers, it should be decided which relationships of the children to these workers need to receive emphasis, which kinds of workers are more interesting to the particular children, and which ideas about work and workers and their ways of being helpful in these children's lives need to be developed.

Children Need Some Understanding Of Social Concepts

Children are frequently catapulted into studies of facts with too little thought given to the concepts which these facts develop or should develop. The pressure to "cover ground" is sometimes so great that children skim

* Written by second grade pupils of Mrs. Lucinda Vivian Barton School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

through endless facts, learning to repeat some and, all too frequently, gathering misconceptions which block real understanding of social phenomena.

If children are to become socially intelligent, they need to develop concepts which will aid them in interpreting social phenomena. Curricula should be inspected to determine which social concepts are most necessary for interpreting our society and to see that opportunities are provided for the gradual development of these concepts on the children's levels of understanding.

As has happened in many communities, large numbers of new children were coming into school. A fifth grade class decided to study the adjustments people new to a community had to make, and what some of the problems were that arose from this increase in the community's population.

The children found out how many new children had entered their school. They discussed the problems a new child meets in fitting into a new school group. Some of the children new to the school told their experiences in learning how to manage themselves there. Others in the group told of experiences they had had when a new teacher was added because there were more children in the school.

The group then explored some of the changes in their own neighborhood. They found that some houses that had previously accommodated one family now held two families; that some families were living in trailers, and that other families had waited months before they could find a place to live.

Through their study these children gained some understanding of social change and why these changes occur. They began to see the problems indi-

viduals face and how they meet these problems.

Children's insights into social situations increase when their study connects with their life experiences and involves problems about which they are curious. The lives of children everywhere are filled with experiences that are interesting or puzzling to them. To the teachers whose purposes are clear, these experiences offer many avenues for developing social intelligence. The problem is encompassable if the selections for study give scope to the experience. In this instance the scope was given by selecting how people adjust to change, how changes are connected with other changes, and how the changes create new problems. In order that children arrive at generalizations, examples in the selected scope should be chosen for detailed exploration. The arrangement of the data gathered and inspected should be such as to help children to reach their own generalizations.

Summary

Developing insight into social situations and developing understanding of social concepts are not enough. One may know that no person can do what he wants to all the time yet lack skill in accepting group decisions that impinge upon his opportunity to do what he pleases. One may divorce the fine words he learns about democracy from any action on his part.

To gain insight into human relationships and to gain skill in behaving appropriately are objectives which need to be developed together and with reference to each other. Every area of school life should contribute to the achievement of these objectives.

Student activities should be consistent to obtain these goals with children.

Interpreting Modern Living With Children

Miss Crosby, teacher of nine- to eleven-year-olds, Fillmore School, Washington, D. C., describes some of the experiences she and her children have had in interpreting their own problems of living in today's world. She gives brief stories of two of her pupils to orient the reader into some of the problems and forces affecting these children and draws some pertinent conclusions concerning the social studies curriculum.

For the Lord thy God bringeth thee into a good land, a land of brooks of water, of fountains and depths that spring out of valleys and hills;

A land of wheat, and barley, and vines, and fig trees, and pomegranates; a land of oil olive, and honey;

A land wherein thou shalt eat bread without scarceness, thou shalt not lack any thing in it; a land whose stones are iron, and out of whose hills thou mayest dig brass.

When thou hast eaten and art full, then thou shalt bless the Lord thy God for the good land which He hath given thee.¹

WHAT HAVE WE DONE WITH THIS "good land"? What have we Americans done with our especially favored small corner of this "good land"? What have we done to its children?

Surely these are times which demand an examination of our status and our qualifications as a people to participate in creating a better world. Such an analysis cannot be a remote, vicarious effort. To be effective, each of us must participate in individual ways, for our opportunities must be utilized where we find them. This article describes the experiences of one teacher and her children in interpreting modern living.

To understand and interpret a curriculum whose foundation is inherently a part of today's living, the needs and conditions of the specific group of children who developed it must be understood.

In a small school in a very old and historic part of our city, a group of thirty-nine fourth- and fifth-grade youngsters began the school year together. This group represented a truly composite cross-section of the population of a large city. It ranged in age from nine to thirteen years, in intelligence quotients from 80-125, in economic status from unemployed to privileged, from homes of poverty to those of culture. Of most serious concern was a school history of retention of nineteen of the children of from two to five semesters each. It will be recognized that a school experience of failure for so many children would result in a high concentration of personality problems.

To convey a picture of group status the more acute problems of two children—two extremes equally serious in terms of their implications for prevention and treatment of personality difficulties—are included.

¹ From Deuteronomy 8: 7-10.

Jeanie—A Partial Report

Jeanie is an eleven-year-old with an intelligence quotient of 80. Her family consists of an unemployed grandfather, a grandmother who, as a self-respecting charwoman, supports her family and is proud of her independence, and an epileptic mother who lives only intermittently at home. In requesting psychological and psychiatric aid for helping this child, Jeanie's teacher submitted the following partial report of significant behavior based upon a seven-week period of observation and analysis:

Academic Work. Jeanie likes to read. She has little difficulty in handling fifth grade material although her reading vocabulary is more mature than her comprehension. It is difficult to know just how well she comprehends, for frequently she refuses to participate in discussions or to do written assignments. She has wide reading tastes — comics, texts, library books, magazines—and she often brings a book to be read aloud to the group by the teacher or herself.

Of equal interest to Jeanie is the writing of original stories. They usually have a theme of fantasy and are fairy-like in their plots. It is possible that a study of these stories would reveal much that disturbs Jeanie but it is difficult to secure copies for study. She occasionally shares them with the children or leaves them on the teacher's desk, but she always demands their return. In structure, style and spelling they are of good quality.

In arithmetic Jeanie is weak. She does not care much for it and evades doing any work in it.

Special Interests. Reading and story writing have been mentioned as special interests. Jeanie has a library card and uses it frequently. She is also fond of games and is skillful in dodge ball which she plays each recess. Seldom does the game proceed smoothly, however, for Jeanie interrupts it constantly to complain of other children. Her complaints usually follow the pattern of accusing others of breaking up the game. Either children whom she does not want to play with insist on playing or someone accidentally runs across the dodge court. Others in the game take these interruptions as a matter of course but Jeanie stops to report the chil-

dren or starts to argue and fight with them.

Jeanie likes to use her hands and frequently brings to school crafts material obtained at Children's House. One of the mysteries is where she gets so much material. She has an excessive number of playing cards, many comics, magazines and a large supply of chewing gum. She likes to chew in school, especially bubble gum. When she is requested to get rid of it, she usually complies but immediately puts another piece in her mouth.

Friends. Jeanie has an attraction for some children. She is completely domineering in her relationships but generous with those whose friendship she is seeking at the time. She is protective and overzealous in her activities in behalf of her friends. While her special friends of the moment do exactly as she tells them, they are in favor. Inevitably, the children who become especially friendly with Jeanie become unstable in their behavior and the quality of their work is affected. Her most consistent friendship is with a neighbor, Emma. They seem drawn to one another but have bitter arguments and actual fights at frequent intervals on the playground or at home.

Many children are afraid of Jeanie and some are repelled by her. She frequently threatens to "get" children but with the large boys she merely argues. She fights only girls her own size or smaller boys and girls. In only one instance has she been known to fight someone larger. This fight occurred after school when a large girl taunted Jeanie with the accusation that she was "going to have a baby." A policeman separated the girls and the sixth grade teacher, passing by, took Jeanie's antagonist home to prevent further fighting.

At the present time Jeanie is much concerned with romance. She is self-conscious in front of boys and is continually seeking to get their attention. A small boy planned to "walk her home," as she reported to the teacher confidentially and following this, he telephoned her from his home off and on all one evening. Big boys refuse to sit near her, either in a group for work with the teacher or at their desks.

Characteristic Behavior. Jeanie's behavior seems conditioned by extreme moodiness. She is either very high or depressed. Twice, tears have run down her face and she could give no reason for them. These are the only two times when she seemed not to be seeking attention. Her moods can change in an instant, occasioned perhaps by the accidental touching of her chair

by another child. Getting attention seems to be Jeanie's major desire. This is supported by the following evidence:

She is continually tattling on other children for real or imaginary offenses.

She consistently asks for help to do work she is competent in and smiles slyly if attention is called to the fact that she knows it.

She constantly reports to the teacher the progress of her work.

She refuses to do her work or mutilates it after doing it.

She objects to routine matters and evades cooperating with the group.

She will conform to no building rules and deliberately violates traffic regulations. Patrols report that her language in the street is too "foul" to repeat.

Jeanie is secretive, suspicious and evasive. Reports come from some parents that a child had been showing pornographic pictures to their children. Once Jeanie flashed a picture calling her teacher's attention to it. It was done so quickly that the teacher requested a second view. Jeanie complied but would not show any others, although she quickly said they weren't "dirty." The one seen by the teacher was of the Vargas girl type and Jeanie slyly confided that no one would be able to find out where they came from because her "uncle" had brought them from Kansas.

Once Jeanie brought flowers to the teacher and another time a framed Madonna.

Jeanie's behavior creates disorder; her erratic conduct, emotional unbalance and uncooperativeness indicate that psychiatric examination is needed. Several children have remarked confidentially that Jeanie is "crazy" and it is obvious that her conduct is not normal.

Jeanie is a child whose environment has so damaged her psychic health that at the age of eleven she has become actively anti-social. She strikes back at a world so callous to the welfare of its children.

Ruth—Her Story

Ruth, a fragile, intelligent and sensitive nine-year-old tells her own story. She entered the group from another city. All that was known of her personal history was that her mother had

been killed in an automobile accident the preceding spring.

Ruth spent the first weeks in her new school listening and observing; she participated only upon request. Her intense concentration and deep love of reading seemed to result in increasingly greater withdrawal from the group, although she seemed to possess a quiet contentment.

One day just before Christmas, Ruth was so deeply involved in writing that the group's usual story time did not disturb her. Mid-way through our story, Ruth completed her work, raised her head abruptly and with satisfaction announced that she had just written the story of her life. She asked if she might stay after the other children had gone so that she could read it aloud to the teacher alone. Here is Ruth's story just as she wrote it:

My family consists of a father, a mother and a brother and me, along with 3 Grandparents 2 on my mothers side 1 on my fathers side along with 11 uncles and 11 aunts and so many cousins I can't count them.

July 20, 1937 Pop was waiting in the Cooly Dixon hospital for gosh knows what. Mom said that the baby was a brown eyed baldheaded girl which turned out to be Ruth the first. At the age of 11 months I said my first word pa. I learned how to walk when one and a half.

Let us skip 3 years of my life and go into the morning of my 4th birthday. That morning I ran downstairs and into the living room where Mom and pop were sitting down waiting for me mom with my one year old brother in her lap. I looked under the table where I found a baby carriage and in it was a bag which contained a pair of overalls 3 shirts and a pair of socks. Mom said for me to go into my bedroom and put them on. After I got dressed I came into the kitchen and at breakfast. Then Bobby and his family who live across the drive from us got into the car with us and we were off for a blueberry hunt.

When we came to the spot we all piled out. Bobby's brother and my brother stayed in the tall grass and played while we picked berries.

as the sun was hot it soon drove us down to the beach where we stayed for about an hour and then we went up to the camphouse where we ate lunch and then we went down to watch the beaver dam where we saw a mother and her babies swimming but my brother had to stub his toe and call out O. And when the beavers heard this they went strait down and we could not see them. that night I had a big party with ice-cream cake pie cookies and cider.

one morning pop went into work and his boss told him that he was to go to washington. We came down 2 months after.

Now we will go to the saddest part of my life. One night about 2 sundays before Mothers day when everybody was asleep but me the phone rang I went down to answer it. It was police chief smith he said hellow is this the lodge household? yes I answered, who is it? he told me, and he also told me that a drunk had been behind pops car and bumped into it and sent it over a 5 foot imbankment. the car was on fire and Moms window was broke. pop got out and pulled mom who was on fire out by the heels. and rolled her in the grass. They both went to the hospital as they were both hurt. I went to school every day. one day when dad had been home for about a week I went into the house and there was dad looking very sad he took billy and I into the bedroom and told us that mom had died in the hospital. the neibors were down stairs waiting. I was so sad that I tore up my best book and went down stairs every one was crying just like me. then my brother and I went to vermont for 2 months and then we came Down here to washington to live with Jane and here I am.

What Should the Curriculum Be?

Many of the children in the group had problems which were unusual or acute. Surely their problems in living in today's world were the grist for our mill. What kind of a curriculum could be developed by them to help them meet the problems they were facing? Certainly the social studies with their content and purpose social in nature should be the basis for the social education these children needed.

Many social studies courses of study are based upon the assumption of a se-

quential and consecutive broadening of concepts reflective of the ever-increasing size of social groups—the social and economic functioning of the family, the neighborhood, the community, the city, the region, our country, and the world. Comparisons and generalizations are made.

No one is likely to disagree with this progression up to a certain point. The family, the neighborhood and the larger community life of young children in the primary school are certainly of immediate concern to them. It is in these groups that young children have their experiences. But to assume that this orderly progression continues after the child reaches the maturity and acquires the command of skills associated with the middle grades is to blind ourselves to the great impact of educational forces affecting the child out of school and to his ability to grasp concepts of time, space, and relationships which usually accompany his increasing maturity.

The status of an individual group of children—its abilities, its previous experiences in and out of school, current factors in the social setting—all must be recognized in developing an individual curriculum. It was upon the basis of this belief that one teacher and her children developed a curriculum which seemed to meet the needs of the group. A brief description of how this curriculum developed follows:

What were our problems in living? Basically we lacked a group consciousness. Many individuals felt no obligation to participate in group activities. Many of us were entering pubescence. We were self-conscious and conscious of the opposite sex. We tired easily and our fatigue manifested itself differently from that of early childhood but just as definitely and overtly. We liked to play hard and fast. We were too rough for younger ones in our group.

We loved stories of chivalry but we mocked any chivalric gesture among ourselves. We liked to serve and favor the teacher but we must do it unobtrusively so that our peers would not notice. Our gifts to her were tiny and could be slipped out of our pockets at opportune moments. Some of us giggled easily and often.

The nines and tens among us were afraid of whole group games because of the size of the bigger boys. They did not seem to tire easily and were forever moving about, not staying very long at any one job. They found it essential to have the last word in frequent arguments and to make the "last tag." They were surprised when the big boys and girls made a point of not sitting next to each other and strove to imitate the older children, although frequently their inclinations were against it.

The boys were excessively conscious of culture pressures and avoided "girls' games" unless they could be convinced that the girls were superior in certain skills in coordination because of their use of specific games. They demonstrated this quite clearly when they asked the teacher one day if boys played jacks. Upon receiving the explanation that jacks developed dexterity and muscle control, they immediately played jacks in the room.

After several weeks of being together we became conscious of many problems people were facing all over the world. We read in the papers and heard on the radio of the hunger of European children, of housing shortages in our city and nation, of the needs of the handicapped. We expressed our awareness of these things in a guide for our discussions:

All over the world people are trying to work out better ways of living together. Can you give good reasons for this? Do you know what important problems there are? Suggest some of the problems we have in living together in school, at home, in our community, in our city, in our country, in the world.

Later we set up the specific problems we were facing in our school living: (1) Being sure that everyone is treated fairly. (2) Controlling ourselves so that everyone is safe and comfortable. (3) Being sure that everyone has a chance to do something he especially likes. (4) Choosing good leaders. (5) Dividing work and responsibilities. (6) Getting ready to earn a living. Then we worked out plans for living together which would enable us to solve or partially solve through desirable action the problems we faced.

Our group paralleled the development of its plans for social living with plans for study of the development of our country as a great nation. We decided to find out why people first came to America, how they lived in little groups along the Eastern coast, and why they travelled Westward. We determined to find through our study how the problems of the people who first lived in our country were like our own, today, and how they were different.

The factor which gave life and meaning to our study was our current news interest in Admiral Byrd's expedition to the Antarctic. Here, in our times, was exploration made real. We made plans to compare today's modern explorations with those of the Age of Discovery, later broadening our comparisons to include those of the pioneers and the conquering of the wilderness. We compared routes, regions, methods and ways of travel, scientific aids, planning, preparing, and outcomes. We enlarged our knowledge of sources of references and developed skill in using maps, records, newspapers, radio, books, magazines and specialists in our search for information. We learned processes of group organization; we learned skills of classifying, organizing and arranging materials and information. We learned through our interests in problems of today the place of geography and history. We developed an understanding of the place of our heritage and how the efforts of those who lived before us contributed to our present living. We developed a working knowledge of the basic principles of sociology and economics, for we found that there was value in the concept of interdependence of peoples. We found that our own study developed only through the related action of small groups working toward a common goal.

At the end of the first semester we evaluated our work. We expressed our individual reactions to: what I've liked best about school this year, things I would like to change at school, how we have grown, and what we should work on. Here are a few of the children's reactions:

I like just about everything here at school. I do not think any changes would be necessary unless you or the other children want some changes made. But I do see some children quarreling and so maybe we can have them work together. That is about all I can think of.

I think that recess should be about twenty minutes. We should have more time for Byrd work. We should have special times for groups to practice our plays. I think that I should change to a different place because I take up my time listening to other groups when they are near working together.

I like the way things are run at school. The only change I could suggest is to have more homework every night.

I think that the school is wonderful just as it is except that I think each child should have his name under his coat hook in the cloakroom so that there will not be quarreling about hooks. Also, I think a committee ought to be on hand on the playground to settle disputes and arguments and help those that get hurt. Then maybe others would have a good time all together. We might make the playground more beautiful with swings and such.

There is nothing that I would necessarily like to change. I have liked this year in school better than any.

I do not think it is necessary to change anything at school. I think it is all right the way it is. That is how I feel.

I think that all, everybody, should work on things on the playground. Many's the time I've seen a smaller child being pushed around by bigger boys and girls.

Many people have to work on their reading. I, myself, have to work on that. Also, to learn to be neat and stay neat without combing your hair all the time.

I think that we have improved in taking responsibilities but we have not improved in it enough.

I think we should work on being sure that everyone is treated fairly. Ever since September we have worked on that, but I think we have to work a little harder on that. I think we should control ourselves so that everyone is safe and comfortable. We have worked on that also.

I think we have improved very much in choosing good leaders because every time we choose leaders we make up our minds if they can take their responsibilities.

I think that our group has grown an awful lot. And we are certainly choosing good leaders. I just don't know how to express it—we have grown so much. I think the boys have stopped breaking up jump rope, dodge, and other games.

If emphasis is to be placed upon social education, if sociological implications are to be sought as a guide in child development, then certainly next steps in the curriculum of the elementary school should provide for two other related areas of study:

(1) How many peoples in the United States are becoming one people should be developed as a study of the racial and national elements comprising our city or region and our country. We should determine why these peoples migrated from their homes, the factors which in-

fluenced their settlement in this country, their similarities and differences in relation to other groups and their contributions to our community and national life.

(2) How many peoples may make one world should be a concluding aspect of study terminating the social education of children in the elementary school and laying the foundation for study on more mature levels. Three basic problems should guide development: we should identify the problems we peoples of the world must face; we should survey and select the instruments available to us for solving problems in our families, in our communities, in our country, and in the world; we should recognize and plan to utilize contributions we, as a single people molded from many, might bring to bear upon the fruition of the goal of world oneness.

Truly we have inherited a good land. But it is a hollow inheritance if men fail to create from it a nobility in living which is based upon the essential worth of each human being regardless of his color, beliefs or economic status. Never in the history of man has it been of more importance to recognize and believe that all men are brothers. The time is near when we will either live in this belief or destroy ourselves.

After an informal conversation one afternoon, nine-year-old Dottie left a list of questions on her teacher's desk with the admonition, "Try to find the answers tonight; I am in a hurry to know!"

These are the questions Dottie asked: What comes after space? What comes after the end? How were the first people created? How did we get to be as we are? How, how, HOW? is my question, and WHY?

Dottie and millions like her are searching for the truth. We have the makings of a "good land."

NOT ONLY IN THE FAMILY BUT IN THE STATE AND IN ALL the walks of life, the attention given to children is productive of the most profit.
—HORACE FLETCHER (1898).

SINCE AUGUST, 1945, WE HAVE BEEN
living in a new age—the atomic age. Hornell Hart of Duke University has pointed out how the atomic bomb has given an unbelievable impetus to our ability to destroy each other: TNT first used for military purposes in 1902 was only twice as strong as gun powder, introduced six centuries before; up to August, 1945, explosives had been developed which were only 3.2 times as powerful as fourteenth century black powder. But the atomic bombs killed 75,000 times as many people per ton as the TNT bombs per ton which were dropped over London in 1914-1918. To put it another way, the atom bomb has already proved to be—compared to gun powder—not twice or 3.2 times but 150,000 times as destructive.

This is, after all, only the beginning. The newspapers tell us that bombs one hundred times as powerful are already available. The atomic scientists state quite calmly that a single heavy attack could destroy our defense power and, at the same time, kill 40,000,000 people. Technological acceleration seems at last to be beyond the reach of organized social intelligence. Mr. Hart, very much the wry sociologist, concludes: "What we are confronting is an extremely acute exacerbation of cultural lag. . . . If social scientists cannot begin now to grapple effectively with that problem, their span of activity on this earth seems likely to be severely limited in the near future."¹

One may add that, if it will make them any happier, the social scientists will have a lot of company, wherever they are going. But it will be a great pity if we choose now of all times to blow each other off the map. It is true

Atomic

that we have admirable technological resources—communication, transportation, atomic energy, radar—to do a first-class job of annihilation; but by the same token, we can use the same resources for creative and constructive purposes in a way that can surpass man's fondest dreams.

What Is the Problem Facing Us?

But intellectually, we know only vaguely what must be done. We are far from precise. We are good on generalizations but not so good on specifics, long on long-range plans but too short on short-term methods. We would like to see a peaceful society but few of us care to see just how this is related to imperialism, mass starvation, slum clearance, international education, intercultural education, a quart of milk for every tot (including Hottentots), tariff barriers, Jim Crow. Our general problem, then, is to become as nearly precise in the field of human relations as nuclear scientists are in the field of atomic energy—and the sooner, the better for all of us.

The best that can be given here are a few general suggestions. Teachers—and all the rest of us—must start looking at the world with what we might call atomic bifocals. Our bifocals should train us to see that intercultural relations at home and international relations abroad are two sides of the same coin. The same lack of understanding which permits racial or ethnic friction at home will scarcely give us the wisdom and insight to prevent international conflict. So our bifocals must

¹In the *American Sociological Review* (June 1946).

By LEO SHAPIRO

Bifocals

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constantly flash from country to country, religion to religion, race to race, problem to problem without convenient exceptions.

To become international, we will have to become intercultural and multicultural. We of the West have always liked to talk of this as a *Christian* world, and to say that the world's highest ideals are in the *Christian* concept: "Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, even so do ye also unto them." Then some Christian leaders heard that the Hebrew sage, Hillel (born c.70 B.C.), once said, "Whatsoever is hateful to thee, do not to another."

Lately we have been hearing in some more enlightened quarters about the *Judaic-Christian* tradition of idealism and humanitarianism. But in an atomic age or a one world society, even this will not be enough. We will have to know intimately and give due respect to the great contributions of all peoples: that the Hindu learns from his *Mahabharata*, "Do naught to others which, if done to thee, would cause thee pain"; that Buddhism enjoins each of its adherents to help people "by treating them as he treats himself"; that the Silver Rule of Confucianism is "What you do not want done to yourself, do not do unto others"; that a central concept in Taoism is "Recompense injury with kindness"; that Zoroastrianism teaches "Whatever thou dost not approve for thyself do not approve for anyone else."

We must learn the truth about what

other peoples believe, and with an open mind and heart rather than in order to find proof that *they* are "inferior" or "strange" or "funny". We must tear from our minds the notion that the Main Street of the universe runs through *our* home town, *our* state, *our* country.

We must also start seeing relations. Other people call it being realistic or being practical. The lenses for atomic bifocals will have to be made with colorless glass—not rosy or pink and, on the other hand, not black or blue—so that we can start seeing things as they are. We in education usually start and end with education. Surely, we shall need plenty of education, brimful and running over—research in human relations, exchange of students and teachers, adult programs, more adequate teacher-education institutions, more effective community-school programs—and all this on a scale completely outdistancing our most ambitious statistics of former days. But some one had better begin telling our students and teachers about the relation of a country's ideals to its nutrition, housing, legislation, recreation, health, welfare, political action, labor.

Our atomic bifocals, then, must enable us to do what is necessary in an atomic age: to look to the ends of the earth to see what peoples all over the world are thinking and doing and, a moment later, to see what our tiniest groups are thinking and doing "at home"; to be concerned with great masses of people in China and India and with the rights of a single individual in Georgia or Palestine; to fight for better schools but also for better housing, better medical care, better legislators, better food and clothing, for our atomic brothers—Mankind, Unlimited.

By MARIE URRERE-PON

We Study Our Pacific Area Neighbors

Experiences of four- and five-year-olds that contributed to their social development and to their concepts concerning the world and the people who live in it are related by Miss Urrere-Pon, teacher of kindergarten, West Portal School, San Francisco, California.

FOUR- AND FIVE-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN can learn some fundamental social concepts and have fun in learning them. They can begin at these early ages to understand the interdependence of all men and the bond of our common humanity, to learn respect for themselves as people and for others as individuals, and to gain some understanding of the infinite potentialities of human nature.

By constantly bringing to the foreground the importance of daily living together with understanding and respect, children learn one of the fundamentals of world living. Music, the dance, literature and the arts—all integral parts of the kindergarten program—can be utilized by the teacher as she plans experiences through which to develop children's social concepts and attitudes. As illustration, here are several accounts of children's experiences in kindergarten that seemed to contribute to their social development.

An excellent picture showing the modern versus the old means of transportation—a streamlined American transport landing on the outskirts of the Mongolian plateau and being met by a caravan of camels carrying food-stuffs, clothing, and similar items—was shown to the children. The differences in the type of clothing were even more marked. Questions stimulated thinking.

Why did the plane land there? What are in the large metal drums marked "gas"? How did the gasoline get there?

What are deserts? How many have been to the deserts of California? What did you see there? What time of the year did you visit the desert? Was it hot or cold? What happened at night to the temperature? What kind of clothes did you wear? What kind of plant life did you see?

What kind of roads do you see in the picture? Are they paved like our streets? Are there any automobiles, busses or trucks? Do you think automobiles could travel on sand?

What is made from camels' wool? Why do the natives of that desert wear different clothes from the aviators? Do you think that sand storms, the heat, the cold have anything to do with the type of clothes worn? Would you like to wear clothes like these people? Do you think that we would be comfortable if we wore those clothes in California?

How do you think the Americans and the natives get along? Why is it important that they get along?

In the children's book case are a few books written for older children, provided for two reasons: to stimulate the color sense of the children by the unusual drawings, and to stimulate the bright child who often will discover something which the average child doesn't. One day John discovered the *Chinese-American Game and Song Book*. It is illustrated and written in both Chinese characters and English symbols and is decorated with Chinese

prints. He recognized the English alphabet but the Chinese characters were unknown to him.

His sudden inquiry about the book brought a group of children around. A few simple Chinese characters such as man and house were drawn on the blackboard and the equivalent English words were placed beneath them to denote the difference between the Chinese and the English writing. A few of the Chinese games and songs were translated, played and sung. The children recognized the similarity between them and their own songs and games.

A globe was used to illustrate in a simple way why there is day and night. (If one hasn't a globe an apple can be used for the earth and a lighted candle for the sun.) With the more inquisitive children various points of interest were pointed out: oceans, continents, the South Pole (where penguins live); the Arctic regions (where bears live); the Hawaiian Islands (where coral is to be found and where so much sugar, coconuts and bananas come from); the African, Indian, and Chinese jungles where wild animals live. The children were thrilled to find out where their daddies have flown—to Manila, to Chicago, to Salt Lake City, to Mexico, to Portland, to Alaska. An awareness of foreign lands was developed by pointing to locations from which came their favorite stories and musical records. During the Christmas holidays when the story of the nativity was told, the globe was used to point out Jerusalem—the birthplace of Christ.

Another kindergarten teacher, whose hobby is collecting bells, brought to school a camel bell. She hung it near her door where all the children could play it as they entered the room. My

children saw the camel's bell and were interested in it.

In my picture files I found several pictures of camel caravans, individual camel pictures, double and single humped camels, camels with bells around their necks. Consequently, our discussion period was lively and informative. The children learned that camels are not native to California or to the United States; that there are many kinds of camels; that in other lands people use camels for carrying burdens and passengers; that there is an absence of modern transportation in these foreign lands; that people drink camels' milk and eat camels' cheese; that the people associated with these caravans dress differently from us.

To supplement the above experience I read Kipling's *How the Camel Got His Hump* and other camel tales and poems.

Other Experiences

Tom brought to school a carved outrigger canoe which his father sent from the South Pacific. Several pictures from the picture file showed Polynesians in canoes, in tribal dances, in fishing scenes. Other children brought models of boats and canoes from different parts of the world. Picture books gave us additional information.

Richard brought some insects and butterflies which his father, an army doctor, sent from the jungles of the Philippine Islands. That other lands have interesting insect life fascinated the children. Keith brought a stuffed ant-eater, a native of South America.

A young student teacher talented in music brought her simple little flute to the room and delighted the children with her gay lilting tunes and accom-

piments to their singing. She gave the children a rich knowledge of the history of the flute and played tunes from different countries.

During kite season the children learned that Chinese children also play with kites and that their kites usually take the form of insects, animals or birds. The kite flying contest held each Spring in the Bay area is of particular interest to the children.

Throughout the seasons children bring flowers and fruit to school. Whenever the occasion arises we learn their names and something about their background. In the Spring I place on a bulletin board pictures of flowers that originated in China and Asia such as the camellia, iris, cinnamon rose, hydrangea, poppy, lily, peony, hollyhock, primrose, and honeysuckle. In the Fall, there is a discussion about the chrysanthemum, which is the national flower of Japan but which originated in China; and also the citrus fruits (all but lime) which originated in Asia.

We have a large aquarium with many gold fish and semi-tropical fish. Besides learning something about the structure and breathing organs of the fish, the children learned that the White Clouds originally came from the White Cloud Mountains near Canton, China; that the Chinese named the White Clouds (English name) after the little boy scout who discovered the fish; that the gold fish is native to China but that the Japanese have bred many newer species; that the mystery snail is a native of Japan; that the weather-fish hails from Japan and Asia. One reason we have only one in the tank is that during the war trade between Japan and the United States was stopped. The children have visited the

Steinhart Aquarium in the Golden Gate Park which houses many fascinating Asiatic and Pacific tropical fish.

One day a little girl told us about her Pekingese dog which she loved because she could carry it about. The children asked her to bring it to school because they wanted to see a real Chinese dog. Another child brought a Chihuahua, a native of Mexico; another brought her Scotty, native of Scotland.

One day as a surprise I played John Charles Thomas' delightful recording of "The Green Eyed Dragon" and immediately the children wanted to know what a dragon was, how it looked, and so on. We studied the dragon painted on a large Chinese drum and other dragons as depicted by Chinese artists. The story of Liang and Lo was read later followed by the Reluctant Dragon which brought much laughter.

There is a "Surprise Cabinet" in the room and every few weeks there are changes in it. One week the children found a marine life scene—coral, all forms and shapes of sea shells, paper gold fish, celluloid fish representing tropical fish, crabs, lobsters and so forth. The children could handle and examine these objects and their nature study background was enriched. Children who had been to Fisherman's Wharf told us about their experiences; children who had gone through Chinatown told us about dried fish, sea horses, and other things that were displayed in the stores. Sometimes there are books on foreign lands in the "Surprise Cabinet"; sometimes there are materials like silk, cotton, linen; other times it holds seasonal displays; on other occasions there are vegetable, flower and fruit seeds and pods.

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Listening oh, so carefully

Editor's Note: Miss Urrere-Pon has prepared a bibliography of books and music dealing with Asiatic and oriental countries. Space does not permit its inclusion here but if there is sufficient demand for it, we shall try to make it available to those who wish it.

A greater awareness of the world was developed by the war. Children felt the seriousness of being separated from their fathers and homes. A new social and world consciousness developed. Letters from oversea fathers to their children were brought to school and letters were dictated to me by the class to these fathers, informing them of the activities in the classroom. We kept a map in the room and pinned locations of oversea relatives. Although these children couldn't read, they were made aware of vast oceanic stretches, the importance of airplanes in reaching one's destination quickly, and the fact that there were others who lived in other countries with different social and economic habits and customs who helped us to win the war.

**Watching
our fish
is
endless fun**



Making strange and wonderful sounds



By P. T. PRITZKAU

Planning Curriculum Experiences With Children

The factor of immediacy in planning curriculum experiences with children is discussed in terms of chronology in child development and the learnings children should have that are basic for living. Mr. Pritzkau is director of elementary education in the Rochester, Minnesota, public schools.

FREQUENTLY, LOFTY AREAS, THEMES, and social functions are formulated within which experiences are to be developed. After a noble beginning, however, too often the teaching seems to drift into a stereotyped pattern somewhat on the following order: home and family in grade one; community helpers in grade two; food, shelter, and clothing in grade three, and so on. As a rule the units have been pretty much pre-determined in a course of study. In spite of the emphasis that a course of study should be used as an aid rather than a guide, there is still a tendency to revert to it as the "frame of reference" in educational direction.

It is not the intention of the writer, of course, to speak derogatively of guides or outlines since preparation for any learning direction is necessary and proper. It is his intention to indicate that the development of learning experiences solely within pre-arranged guides does not square with the principle that the child is the active agent in any planning procedure concerned with his learning needs.

In an approach to the building of curriculum experiences on the basis of immediacy it is necessary for the teacher to preview the natural and regular experiences of children. The reflective teacher visualizes the whole process of living of her children—what

they do at home, how they play, what happens when they go to the market with their mothers, what experiences take place when they go riding with their parents, and the bases of interaction with neighbors. This visualization of a whole gamut of activities will already provide some basis for the experiences which should take place in the classroom. The teacher will know that the lives of children are already rich with experiences when they enter the kindergarten. Where school systems are fortunate enough to have nursery groups, the teacher will capitalize on the enriched experiences which they have had and proceed on that basis to plan new experiences with the children.

The Kindergarten Teacher Confers, Observes, and Anticipates Changes

In view of the daily activities which the teacher has visualized she will immediately go a step further in building her curriculum. She will provide the occasions for conferences with parents where an inter-flow of conversation reveals a wealth of material for the plan of immediate experiencing. To illustrate: Conferences point out that John is always building something—father's tools are always disappearing to the back yard; Jane pesters her mother about decorations for the doll house; Betty

likes to go shopping with her mother for various reasons; Bill enjoys a rough and tumble sort of play and "flits" from one thing to another; John works alone a great deal. The parents of Jane and Bill point out that they almost always have playmates. Innumerable patterns of behavior become apparent through these conferences.

The conferences furnish leads which are utilized in setting the atmosphere within which learning activities will proceed on the normal basis of child needs. Some children wish to build, some like to decorate, others play train or aeroplane with the large blocks. At first, each child plays and works more or less on his own. Gradually, however, through thoughtful leadership on the part of the teacher, there develops a merging of interests. Children talk with the teacher about what they are doing—they ask questions. She in turn answers their questions and counters with other questions, thus giving rise to a train of thought as to what is being done.

Children begin to sense the fact that an activity proceeds better when they work with each other. They discover, also, that there is more to building than pounding with a hammer. They suddenly are planning the playhouse—the foundation, the windows, the roof. They gain concepts of various building materials. They accept the good ideas of Marilyn, Pete, and Richard. They look at pictures of playhouses. They get other ideas as to what should go into the house. They plan ways of using the house. Elements of good cooperation are developing. Acts of critical thinking are plainly evident in the children's planning. Interaction is becoming more and more a fact. Attitudes toward one another are shaping up in

a positive manner. True dynamic learning is taking place.

The kindergarten teacher evaluates the specifics of the patterns of behavior in view of some big objectives. No doubt, one of these objectives would be the development of democratic processes so that they would become a part of the child's thinking in his daily performance. She would further re-state this objective in terms of behavior anticipated. In the progress of the many experiences in which the children engage, changes such as these would be anticipated and observations relative to them would be made:

An increasing attitude on the part of children to wish to work together.

A gradual recognition that not only the giving but the acceptance of contributions from others makes the total product more valuable and complete for everyone.

An increasing recognition of the fact that the role of leadership contains elements far more intelligent than being a "boss."

The acceptance of the fact that leadership is not super-ego involvement but rather the suppression of it to the larger good. In other words, the leader loses himself in the operation which will tend to organize the experiences so as to include the contributions of everyone to the degree that those contributions are valuable to the total situation.

The First Grade Teacher Builds On What Has Been Done

The observations which have been made on individual children would be transferred to the first grade level. The thinking first grade teacher values what has been done. The insight revealed by the observations made by the kindergarten teacher does not lessen the tremendous responsibility of the first grade teacher. These children are now a year older. With a splendid operating relationship with parents established the preceding year, she proceeds to evaluate with them the changes which have

taken place. She recognizes that many of these children are ready either for new experiences or for more advanced experiences of the same type which they have had. She is wise in that she has no intention of going into a formal pattern. She creates with the children the environment on the basis of her knowledge of these children.

She recognizes immediate needs and shapes the atmosphere accordingly.

With the help of the children she arranges interest corners. From time to time the growth of understandings act to change these interest corners. Children choose appropriate books for the corners. They gather pictures and articles for the various experiences which they have started. They build their own books about their new experiences. They gain new learnings by reading. They dramatize and visit places relative to their centers of interest. Changes are definitely taking place and this teacher would not trust herself to remember them so she records them. The changes are guides to the building of the curriculum to fulfill ever-emerging needs.

It is apparent that the atmosphere of learning enriches itself from time to time in line with the changes occurring in children. The wise teacher calculates the time and place for enlarging the area of experiences. Children have furnished leads in view of their enlarged vision and understanding. The teacher meanwhile has provided certain leads which are conversant with the needs which children have made apparent.

To illustrate: In the course of the experiences involved in building, art work, making, and moving, children are recognizing the needs of other aspects in the environment such as knowing what the books add to the centers of interest. Many of them are looking

through the books and come to the teacher to find out what is in them. Some do not show any appreciable interest in wanting to read. The teacher has observed the changes in children toward wanting more experiences. She talks over with different groups about the use of books in "what we do", and that "we have to learn" how to use them. Thus begins reading work which will in itself enlarge the children's horizon of experiences.

Some of the children have been doing work with the books from the beginning. The teacher does not take every book and have children start from the beginning and read through all of it part by part until they have finished it. She does have a plan, however, for the developmental steps in reading—the reading they do in order to know how to read the stories about their work. Most of the material is read for the purpose of gaining concepts and understandings about what is going on in the working environment of the children. The teacher provides new leads toward immediate experiences.

To illustrate: The approach of spring opens up vistas of experiences. There will be stories built by teacher and children about the melting snow, the running water, how water carries soil and makes mud, how water works, how street workers keep the storm sewers from clogging, and how water helps plants to grow. The children will also tell and read about the birds of spring, seeds and planting, and the work of farmers. The children are finding stories through the use of tables of contents and indexes. A research habit is being instilled. Scientific principles are being conceived which will lead into enlarged areas of study.

The accumulated data on the work

with the children and all significant information on their habits, developmental stages, attitudes, and personality patterns are passed on to the teacher of the next level. There seems to be an advantage in the practice of a teacher going on with the same group of children for two or more years. She would more nearly identify progressive changes which would enable her to lead directly into an enlarged curriculum without getting re-acquainted as a new teacher would have to do. In any event, in view of the big objectives, the teacher on this level would carefully appraise all the accrued significant information and, in addition, would re-assess the desired changes as she proceeds into new and more advanced experiences. Again, the objectives would be re-stated in terms of specificity of behavior and the experiences planned with the children on the basis of immediacy of needs.

The Middle Years and Immediacy in the Curriculum

As the child moves into the middle years, a question often arises with respect to immediacy in the curriculum. The question is somewhat like this—How is it possible for children to gain an understanding of world problems and interrelationships of people over a wide area if the experiences are built around the immediate environment? The question carries with it an erroneous implication of the building of experiences as is suggested by the following illustration:

Most of the children may express an initial interest in some experience such as flying. Someone would take this as the cue for launching into a unit on aviation. This is pursued for a time until a circus comes to town. Then the big interest is animals. Are they going to finish the study on aviation or jump into

the unit on animals? A week or so later the railroad company puts into operation a new streamlined train. Immediately all attention turns to trains. Then, of course, it would appear necessary to concentrate on trains.

The procedure indicated would hardly lead into the development of understandings basic to living. On the other hand, to ignore the interests which the children reveal incidental to exciting and intriguing events would show an utter lack of insight into child nature. All the interests manifested by the children as the result of recurring events in their environment must be utilized as opportunities for promoting concepts, understandings, and attitudes. The experiences incident to the airplane, circus, and train could very well be resolved into a study of communities.

That, however, in itself is not of the greatest importance. What is really important is that the elements of understanding to be developed are related to the child's needs—many of the needs understood by the child. The needs are detected through the child's questions which become problems to be solved. For example, the child will ask such questions as "How does the pilot make the airplane take off from the ground?" "What is meant by a streamlined train?" "How does the trainer keep wild animals from biting him?"

The tactful teacher will lead discussions and help to secure reading materials which will answer these questions and, through additional questions and discussion, point the thinking in the direction of "necessities for man." Human needs are such as demand speed and comfort. Human engineers, in order to bring this about, must build on certain scientific principles such as "A pointed surface meets less resistance

than a flat surface." Another principle of streamlining may be related to functionalism with a minimum of physical effort. Through illustrations, discussions, experiments, and function, the work with principles of science is expanded into the real curriculum designed to fulfill the needs of man in his onward march of civilization.

So That Man May See the Value in Other Men

Many statements, questions, and interests, no doubt, could give rise to innumerable units of study. At all times, however, there must develop a weighing of values. People must know what goes on in their "own front yard" before they launch out into a real understanding of human relationships in the world community. With skillful leadership on the part of the teacher this "front yard" becomes a rich and fitting resource in promoting understandings and attitudes. Man's efforts in improving his own surroundings and those of his neighbors begin at home. From this he launches out into a better understanding of his neighboring communities. He compares services in which he has had a part to those of other communities. Thus is begun a never-ending chain of interaction—man sees the value in other men.

In the reliving of the experiences of community development, children, as men, are led to the question, "What is meant by the statement, 'Man has come a long way'?" or, "What prompts people to improve their common ways of living?" These questions lead children into research on background for answers. Do they study the chronology of history? Somewhat, but not altogether. They study the health and sanitation of people in ancient and medieval times, looking for the clues which en-

lightened men to strive for better practices. They study the history of Christianity, especially as it pertains to human relationships and advancement. They do this, not for the purpose of seeing only parallels, but rather to distinguish dynamic forces which operate for progress designed to serve humanity now.

They also distinguish the forces which operate toward destruction. Some such forces are those which waste the forests, rob the land, and destroy the wild life. They do research on the wastes of other countries which have caused frustrations of a type which have a tendency to deteriorate or retard human progress. This type of learning fosters an understanding of today and its problems.

It may appear at first sight that the curriculum on immediate needs fosters a type of isolationism. Quite the contrary. In the pursuit of the study of why people behaved as they did at different stages of history, a better understanding is evolved as to why man behaves as he does now. Then, in order to be functional, man is to be taken where he is and led forward into a better understanding of his problems.

It is hardly necessary to state that in a curriculum of immediate needs the skills must be developed to a greater degree than in any other type of curriculum approach. The need for the skills is so apparent at every step that the whole program of fostering human relationships and attitudes of dynamic functionalism will fail utterly without them. The need for better reading and the other communicative skills will be so evident to the child that he will demand the help of the teacher and other children to become more conversant with them.

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By LELAND B. JACOBS

Culture Patterns in Children's Fiction

What the reading of fiction can do for children in developing an awareness of their cultural patterns and critical evaluation of them. Mr. Jacobs is assistant professor of education, Ohio State University, Columbus.

ONLY RELATIVELY RECENTLY HAS there been developed much concern for the exploration of and critical thinking about the ideas in literature for children. With the recent rapid growth in realistic prose fiction for children there now appears some concern by educators for the ideational content of children's books. Forward-looking educators are beginning to recognize that children's literature may be a significant means of exploring the social scene and the problems of personal development by groups of children or individuals, under the guidance of the school. Forward-looking teachers concerned with children's literature are convinced that the reading of literature in the elementary school should promote critical consideration of life issues, dilemmas or problems.

Louise Rosenblatt states the thesis that teachers of literature have not realized fully enough that they are "constantly affecting the student's sense of human personality and human society," for when one deals with literature he is constantly inculcating in the minds of children "general ideas about human nature and conduct, definite moral attitudes, specific psychological and sociological theories, and habitual responses to people and situations."¹

Other countries have in the past and are in the present utilizing children's books for exploration, explanation, and indoctrination in a given way of life. Other countries have already discovered and are reported utilizing the potentialities of the exploration of the native culture or national ideology by their children in their books, chiefly with a view to the indoctrination of the young to a nationalistic viewpoint. Recent analyses of children's books from Russia and Germany, for example, indicate that the books for communist and fascist children have been dealing with serious problems of living within the culture. Germany as a fascist state and Russia as a communist state have used their picture books, their primers, and their children's fiction to promote big nationalistic ideas in such a form as is assimilable by the young child.

While the study of nationalism in children's books is still, for the most part, an unexplored field, even cursory observations of the children's books from other countries seem to point out that children's literature may be a very powerful vehicle for nationalist influence in indoctrination for or understanding of a given way of life.

¹ *Literature as Exploration*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938. P. 5.

Children's fiction of American life that is worthy of the name is also an achievement in the exploration of child-living within the culture at a given moment in time, past or present. As art, American children's fiction is concerned with significant subjects and themes. It faces up to real issues in the life of our people which are within the range of interest and the comprehension of the child. It affords the child reader an opportunity to share vicariously in the needs of fictional personalities in their total development within the culture. It enables the child reader to participate vicariously in the conflicts, achievements, pleasures, allegiances, and selected actions of an appealingly created character, and to feel the emotions, to share the aspirations of other human beings in a setting and a regional pattern either like or different from his own.

Through the reading of American fiction of high quality, the child may simultaneously gain insight and entertainment and heightened sensitivity to the needs and problems of others different from him in time or space, in temperament or in social environment, yet like him in that these fictional characters too are embedded in his democratic culture.

Children's fiction of American life can do yet more for the child reader. It can increase the reader's imaginative capacity to understand something of a growing meaning of democracy, something of the meaning of living in a heterogeneous democratic society that is seeking experimentally to create more successful ways of achieving adequate nurture and security for all its people. Such fiction should open to the developing child reader the challenges of the

dynamic quality of democratic behavior.

Concerning the cultural pattern, children's fiction of American life demonstrates clearly the interaction of the individual with his natural-social environment. It shows the individual assimilating his cultural inheritance; it shows his behavior configured into the cultural pattern. Children's fiction of American life of high quality demonstrates how the individual personality is constantly sensitive to cultural influences, opportunities, limitations, or pressures. The fictional child character develops as a personality under the impress and in conjunction with other personalities — parents, teachers, friends, peers—similarly within the influence of the culture. The characters in American children's fiction experience and adjust to their cultural inheritance: a world of things, of natural resources, of events, of values, of groups, of customs, of institutions, all co-mingled. The child reader who peruses children's fiction of American life has spread before him on the printed page both the various aspects of our physical civilization and our national psychology.

The physical civilization which the child reader will observe in his fiction of American life will include those aspects of the material culture which the American people prize or seek or take for granted. Children's fiction of American life is impelled, as a realization of life and in the very nature of its production, to concern itself with the physical aspects of the culture: the institutions that a people promote; the occupations in which they engage; the recognizable minority groups in their midst; the handicrafts, tools, and wea-

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pons; the holidays; the recreations; and the transportation and communication utilized by our people in carrying on their national life and their individual daily living.

These aspects of the material culture which contribute to the basic satisfactions which the American people seem to value and for which they strive are, in a very real sense, in life as well as in fiction interwoven and interrelated in the psychology and philosophy of our people. The evidences of the material culture aid in the interpretation of the subtle psychology and philosophy of our people. If, for instance, the child from his reading of fiction of American life gets the impression that the "typical" American is white, Protestant, comfortably middle class in socio-economic status, and of northern European extraction, he frequently gets these ideas from the institutions, the minority groups, the occupations, and other aspects of the physical civilization which are graphically presented in the plots of the stories.

If, again, the child gets from his reading the idea that the home is a rock of security within the framework of which the American child grows and develops, he may get this belief more, perhaps, from the emphasis in his books upon housing and such other aspects of the material culture as the lighting, heating, household possessions, and the



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Über all ein bun tes Treiben,
wer mag da am Ufer blei ben?
Und wer wagt sich nicht her an?
Ulrich schaut die andern an,
wie sie schlittern, wie sie schreiten,
wie sie glit schen, wie sie gleiten,
wie sie pur zeln, ha schen, ja gen!
Uli wird es auch noch wagen.

This illustration is about three-fourths of a page from *Berliner Fibel*—a spelling and reading book for teaching the German alphabet. The one-fourth of the page not shown is covered with heavy paper pasted on by the American Military Government in its censorship of German textbooks. Beneath the paper and quite easily read by holding the page to the light is a sentence referring to a new uniform Uli's Aunt Ursula has just bought for him. More than half the opposite page is covered and beneath the heavy paper is a picture in color of little boys marching in the uniform of the Nazi youth.

The book was approved for publication in 1943 by the city president of the capitol of the Reich. The book was printed in Breslau.

The page is reproduced through the courtesy of Beas Goodykoontz, U. S. Office of Education, to whom the book belongs.

family constellation and customs than he does from the direct assertions of the author concerning the values of the home life to the child. The non-material culture, concerned as it is with the

psychology and philosophy of our people, is so enmeshed with the material culture in children's literature of American life that the genuinely artistic creations in the field of children's realistic prose fiction cannot escape concern for some of the significant ideals, beliefs, and values that give direction to the group life of our people at a given moment in culture.

Through the child's imaginative participation in a wide variety of patterns of behavior and the interaction of the individual with his culture, the reader, consciously or unconsciously, is subjected to assumptions concerning democratic living in the books dealing with American life which he reads. The author—and hence the reader—cannot escape in his fiction beliefs about life and society and the universe, since the serious writer seeks to portray through his art what he believes to be a true perspective of living in selected areas or phases of experience.

When the literature of American life for children is an honest exploration of the life of the people, it deals in some respects with the three inter-related democratic values upon which our society is built: (1) the optimum development of the individual; (2) the interdependence of men in democratically cooperative group living; and (3) the utilization of the methods of intelligence in all human affairs. These values will necessarily appear, positively or negatively, in all children's fiction.

It is important that, as one scrutinizes the culture pattern in children's fiction, he asks himself the extent to which he is able to ascertain these values in the action of the narrative. Concerning the non-material culture, it is important to observe the extent to which

a given book espouses a realistic faith in democratic living in this culture.

Here, then, is a challenge to all teachers of young children:

Do we read, uncritically, with children stories of child living in the American scene, or do we aid children to grow through their experiences with literature in a critical awareness of a cultural pattern which, in fiction, is graphically and appealingly presented?

Do we select books for children which are honest and well-balanced in their portrayal of the material aspects of culture and which in their thread of narrative, choice of incidents and details, delineation of character, and the general structuring of the plot, present realistically assumptions concerning democratic living in our society on a child's level of interpretation?

Do we help children to grow in realization and understanding that every author reveals in some degree the values which he cherishes and transmits to every individual reader?

Do we, as teachers, help children to understand that a reader's thinking may be so influenced by some strongly appealing work of fiction that he may fall victim to the tyranny of outmoded ideas or may champion emotionalized attitudes inappropriate to the conditions of modern democratic living?

Do we ask ourselves seriously what concepts of democracy the child may get from a work of fiction which supposedly portrays significantly a moment in culture?

Summarily, do we as teachers take seriously our responsibility for the critical examination of the portrayal of the culture and of the value judgments that are inextricably interwoven in children's fiction of American life?

By TILLIE S. PINE

We Dramatize the United Nations

How a group of children developed their concepts of world events through dramatization and added to their social development. Mrs. Pine is a teacher in the New York City public schools.

CHILDREN OFTEN SHOW A SOCIAL awareness which is way beyond their years, their background or their scholastic abilities. I have ample opportunity to observe this phenomenon daily in my fourth grade class in a school situated in a mixed racial and depressed economic area in Manhattan. My class of twenty-four boys and girls, whose mental equipment ranges from an I.Q. of 76 to 110 and whose scholastic advancement has been very slow, are nevertheless very interested in world events.

A regular feature of our daily program is a morning get-together where we exchange experiences, sing songs, discuss current events, and occasionally dramatize freely any interesting occurrence in school or out of it. The children in my class, coming from poor homes and broken homes have, as a result, little opportunity for social intercourse and resultant social discussions. However, the movies, the radio, the picture newspapers, and the comics, as well as their own needs do contribute to their social awareness. This is brought out daily in these morning get-togethers.

When the daily papers featured the progress of the United Nations Organization, I waited for an opening during the morning discussion period to bring the issue to the attention of the class. One morning events played right into my hands. Fred walked in with

just the right book, *Photographic Record of World War II*. He showed the pictures to the class and we discussed the many nations and places that were involved in the war just ended. I took the opportunity to open the discussion on the United Nations Organization by asking such questions as: What did the people of the world decide to do in order to avoid another war? How many countries make up the United Nations? Is Japan one of them? Is Germany? How were the people chosen to go to San Francisco? Who sent the English, the Russians, the Chinese?

We talked about the United Nations Charter and I read the preamble to them, asking them to see how many words they could remember. They remembered "no more war" and "peace always." I suggested that they might like to dramatize the United Nations Conference at San Francisco. This is the way they did it:

Eugene is appointed chairman and to represent the U.S.A. He names other children to represent Russia, China, England, Turkey, France.

"I'm American," said Eugene. "When they come in I shake their hands." He greets each one cordially as he comes from the coat room where the planning had been done. Each representative names his country as he steps out.

Several children had wanted to represent China, England, and Russia. One member of the class said as they were arguing over who was to be China or England, "They'll have a war there if they keep this up."

Soon all the children who represent the United Nations are lined up facing the U. S. delegate.

Eugene: "First we will have our famous song." He begins to sing our national anthem, joined by the class and delegates.

I suggest that since the other delegates will not know our anthem one person usually sings for all the rest. Thomas then sang *My Country 'Tis of Thee*.

Eugene: "We the people brought you here for a serious matter. We are trying to form a government, a court for the whole world. Any-one have anything to say?"

Mexico raises his hand (Laurence) then gets confused: "I don't know what to say. I think if one country starts a war and all countries got together . . ." His voice trails off.

Rudolph (China) stands on chair and insists on talking in Chinese. The children say they won't understand him. Eugene says he will interpret when Rudolph finishes. So Rudolph imitates Chinese language and does very well.

Eugene interprets: (Stands on chair and pretends to talk into a mike). "He said his country lost a lot of people. They don't want war. They want peace. That's why he came here. They want food. The Japs burned the rice fields. They have been at war a long time. He was glad the conference was going to be. The United Nations are good people. He said all his people would be grateful if they have peace."

All applaud.

Robert: "I am from Turkey. The Turkish people need peace. They do not like to fight."

I ask, "This is fine, but what do you want the United Nations to do?"

Several voices say, "Peace all the time."

McCarvin: "I'm from England. My country was fighting against the Germans. We want peace."

Fred wants to speak for France. Eugene objects and says France gave up.

"Right," I interrupt, "but they became one of the United Nations. They went over to our side."

Fred speaks: "My people want peace. Most of our people were killed by the Germans."

England asks to speak again. Eugene objects. I explain that as the conference lasted several weeks delegates had a chance to speak several times.

McCarvin (England): "My country has been burned and bombed. We need food. Some of

my people were hung by the neck and shot by a firing squad. We want freedom, no Germans breaking in. I don't want war. I want freedom of churches, freedom to get a job, freedom to take care of your child, freedom to see that you raise 'em right. Instead of letting them run in the streets, build playgrounds. I want parks, hospitals. Children nice and healthy and strong. Nothing to worry about. If they get in trouble someone to do them a favor, maybe be nice and kind to them. No war. That's all, ladies and gentlemen."

Applause.

Eugene makes a speech for the U.S.A.: "Ladies and gentlemen, we must have peace. I want all of you to sign this. Then we'll get along more better. We want no arguments like this: 'My people is better.' 'No, my people is better.' If you do that you'll be like Hitler. All people are the same, even if you have different color skin or hair or anything. No people are better. Sign this and get along with one another. They are your next door neighbor even if they are countries. Step up like brave men and sign. Pound Hitler into the ground." Applause.

"What will happen if one country goes to war?" I ask.

Eugene: "We'll get together, have a club and talk. Every country will talk."

The delegates sign the charter and the play is over.

The free dialogue gives the children an opportunity to express their ideas without worrying about spelling and form and to crystallize whatever knowledge they have gained during the discussion periods. The emotional maturity of the group has a chance to be canalized in channels that will contribute toward their intellectual growth. Dramatization gives the dull an opportunity to identify themselves with famous people who may have an effect on their own future. Thus dramatization emphasizes the "intelligent use of the principle that interpretation and generalization . . . are valuable only when based on an understanding of the facts to which they relate."¹

¹ From the Harvard Report on General Education.

Books FOR TEACHERS . . .

TWENTIETH CENTURY EDUCATION
By P. F. Valentine and others. New York:
Philosophical Library. Pp. 655 and ix. \$7.50.

The several authors of *Twentieth Century Education* attempt a survey of the beliefs and the basic concepts of educational philosophy that undergird our American education. It is the wish of the editor to present a short digest of the conflicting points of view advanced by those frontier thinkers who have contributed much by way of directing our thinking to important issues. The ill-informed and the unprincipled manipulators of opinions have confused "students and thoughtful people who want a view of the whole picture." The volume is quite elementary and no doubt many will criticize it for this reason. Because of its directness and brevity it will be challenged for accuracy of interpretation and lack of completeness.

This reviewer believes that few will disagree that Part I is the strongest section of the book. In chapters II, III and V the authors present in a most understandable manner a comparative survey of the great philosophical concepts that have contributed most to modern educational thought and practice. The treatment is most objective and stated succinctly in language that is intelligible and meaningful to the advanced college student. The concepts of idealism, realism and pragmatism are developed in these three chapters as positive contributions to modern education as well as representing particular schools of thought in the evolution of an educational philosophy.

The author of chapter VII poses a real problem for the humanities curricula of some thirty colleges as he visions their part in liberalizing college instruction in some of the more traditional subject areas in which vested interests and traditional methods of instruction stand as barriers to change.

Part II which deals with *Psychology in Education* is rather disappointing in that the authors fail to achieve unity even within their own treatment of a subject. In some instances it appears that the author has carefully omitted mention of certain recent theories in order to build up a particular point of view. All too

often the chapters of this section present a series of disjointed paragraphs.

Part IV brings into focus an aspect of education to which much lip service is given but in which very little has been done to implement the basic principles. We have talked long and vigorously about education and society but the instances in which it has been developed functionally are not too frequent.

Part V surveys the school situation and its problems. In two hundred pages the reader is presented a panorama of the modern school, the aims and functions of the various organizational units and related areas of educational responsibility, and the problems peculiar to each of these areas. There are those who will say that the treatment of the various subjects is inadequate but it must be admitted that in two hundred pages one would find it difficult to improve on the material presented or on its selection and organization.

The characteristic weaknesses common to most books to which several authors contribute are quite evident. There is no consistent point of view throughout. Certain chapters are very weak and tend to lower one's respect for the book as a whole. It is also natural for an author to select for comparison the more undesirable and questionable aspects of points of view that are contrary to his own thesis. Unless the reader is already fairly familiar with the subject under discussion and cognizant of these facts he will get little help from his study of this volume. As a source book and quick reference, the book has definite value and should have a place in the personal library of every college instructor in the field of teacher education.—Irwin A. Hammer, Western Washington College of Education, Bellingham, Washington.

CHANGING THE CURRICULUM. By Alice Miel. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company. Pp. 242. \$2.25.

No fair-minded person in education can read *Changing the Curriculum* without something akin to pride. Here is an intelligent, competent, stimulating treatment of a profoundly difficult and crucial problem—one which many

persons are "mixed up in" but from which few try to extricate themselves by writing their way clear.

Whether Miss Miel has ever found herself entangled in a curriculum maze is of little importance. The point is that she knows there are plenty of curriculum workers who are running something of a rat race. What is more, she knows why; and knowing, suggests simple, concise, readable directions as to the way out.

"Crystallization" of curriculum practice, according to Miss Miel, is what keeps many of us running round and round and getting nowhere. It is evident on every hand—in a firmly established grade pattern that few people have dared to change; in a system of "subjects" entrenched and fortified by series of textbooks; in a counter system of units, too often distortions of the original activity plan; in a course of study mistakenly accepted as a curriculum; and in a method of curriculum planning in direct violation of democratic principles. Small wonder, the author thinks, that one looks in vain for new content in the curriculum or for actual changes in the attitude and behavior of people. And most readers will agree with her by the time they have completed Chapter I.

Chapter II might well have been called "What Is All the Running For?" In the answer "Social Change," Miss Miel shows how to point up curriculum activity so that it may become purposeful and significant, and how it may be made to achieve the guarantee of security, of individual and group growth, and of satisfying accomplishment in the product, by utilizing the same guarantees in the process. The manageable factors involved in the process of social change are defined as (1) human motivations, (2) conditions of effective group behavior, (3) social invention, and (4) amount and quality of leadership. These factors, in turn, provide the theme of successive chapters.

The role of human motivation in social change is treated so convincingly that the reader wonders why the chapter need have been written. What has happened to our earliest learnings of psychology regarding the source of human energy? Why haven't we been applying human values and goals and dissatisfactions (if we have not done so) to effect curriculum change and ultimate social change? Why have we permitted human energy to be expended in confused running with its inevitable ending at blank walls when it might have been directed toward "open-ended goals?" These are some

of the questions that Chapter III will raise in the mind of anyone who is about to start a program of curriculum change or to evaluate a current program.

Perhaps the most helpful part of the book is to be found in Chapter IV. Here the author sets forth the weaknesses of the typical committee organization. She outlines a simple and workable system of group endeavor to ensure adequate participation from teachers, administrators, pupils, and community adults, to the end that no group will wander in a blind maze or block the progress of any other group.

Leadership has a place, according to Miss Miel's scheme of things. But it is a shared leadership of various kinds and amounts, to be developed in every participant in curriculum change, rather than a leadership concentrated in a single individual. The specialist's recognized place is that of status leader who has acquired expertness "in techniques of group action, in organization, in timing and strategy, in co-ordination."

Throughout the pages of *Changing the Curriculum*, Miss Miel is herself a status leader, generating leadership in others while exerting leadership, enlisting interest in social change through the processes of curriculum change, coordinating curriculum activity by beginning where most of us are, initiating new ways of working without fanfare, and helping every reader to play a more creative and a more productive role in curriculum improvement and social change.—Bernice E. Leary, Department of Curriculum, The Madison Public Schools, Madison, Wisconsin.

GLASS HOUSE OF PREJUDICE. By Dorothy W. Baruch. New York: William Morrow and Company. Pp. 250. \$2.50.

Despite the healthy signs everywhere of a growing world-consciousness of human rights generally, thoughtful people admit that injustices are still perpetrated against minority groups.

With considerable artistry, Dorothy Baruch illuminates her discussion of prejudice by citing episodes from the lives of individual members of minority groups against whom injustices are directed. José, Mary, Henry and Sue and many like them are introduced to the reader, and sufficient acquaintance is established to cause the reader to feel personally the vicissitudes, indignities and sometimes, later, death to which these individuals are exposed. He is left with an uncomfortable feeling that he has

just witnessed the degradation of, if not a personal friend, at least a next-door neighbor whom he regards with respect and beside whom he has lived in a spirit of good fellowship.

The author is concerned not only that the minority groups be considered in the light of individuals comprising them, but that all who harbor prejudice have a similar penetrating light turned upon them as individuals and that the factors which bring about prejudice be examined.

Prejudice is likened to a disease—a disease which strongly affects others but which in the last analysis is most dangerous to the one whose unhappy lot it is to have contracted it.

In Part Two of the book the causes of prejudice are analyzed and reduced to these three: thoughtless imitation of others, generalizations made because of one unfortunate association or experience, and displaced resentment. In Part Three, the reader is given practical suggestions for effecting a cure within himself and in others.

References and supplementary materials are included for the reader who wishes to explore what other writers have contributed to the study of prejudice.

Parents, teachers and students will find an answer to their question, "But what can we do about it?" and direction toward constructive action. — *Arensa Sondergaard, Elementary School Staff Member, Bronxville, N. Y.*

PHYSICAL EDUCATION FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. By Mary Louise Curtiss and Adelaide B. Curtiss. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1945. Pp. 286. \$2.75.

In *Physical Education for Elementary Schools* the authors emphasize the importance of helping children to play in meaningful ways. Children of the modern world with its crowded cities and remote countrysides soon tire of merely running, jumping and throwing. To give them meaningful games and dances is the responsibility of the parents and the school. When children show they are ready to play, it is the time to select suitable activities for both indoors and outdoors. Play experiences based on the age, sex, past experiences, interest, feasibility, and possibilities for democratic participation will help children to grow mentally and physically.

The authors include in their book many games from which useful selections can be made—games for a few players, for many players, for younger and older children, for boys and girls. The words and musical accompaniments of many of the folk dances and singing games are included.

This book should be helpful for recreation and school use.—*Diana W. Anderson, University of California at Los Angeles.*

The editor regrets that the poem, "Early Glory," which appeared in the December 1946 issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION was, through a misunderstanding, printed without the express permission of the author, and in a form different from the manuscript submitted. The corrected version appears below.

Early Glory

His mother stood upon the platform, tall
And sure before the children, teachers—all
His school assembled there.

They clapped for her and clapped and clapped again.

When, afterwards, he turned around and saw
His first-grade mates regarding him with awe,
It seemed to him that he must burst, or purr—
He was so full of joy and pride in her.

—MYRTLE CRUZON GEYER

Books FOR CHILDREN . . .

THE GOLDEN BIBLE—THE OLD TESTAMENT. By Elsa Jane Werner. Illustrated by Feodor Rojankovsky. New York: Simon and Schuster. Pp. 124. \$2.50.

Even the youngest child will get something from the vivid pictures accompanying the condensation of the King James Version of the Old Testament. It is a contribution to the religious heritage of today's children. It is hoped that because of this book Noah, Abraham, Jacob, Joseph, Moses, Joshua, David, Solomon and countless other Biblical heroes may come to mean something to the thousands of children growing up today without any religious training.

THE WONDERFUL YEAR. By Nancy Barnes. Illustrated by Kate Seredy. New York: Julian Messner, Inc. Pp. 185. \$2.50.

Older girls will enjoy this winner of the Julia Ellsworth Ford Foundation Award for Children's Literature. A regional story that makes a fruit-farming ranch in Colorado, a generation ago, the background of a girl growing up. "Some day" is the goal of all human beings and somehow this book really makes one have faith in the future for as it says at the end: "Some day wasn't forever. Some day would come." Isn't that what we all want to believe? Teachers working with growing girls will find it helpful in understanding their idiosyncrasies.

THE GOLDEN ENCYCLOPEDIA. By Dorothy A. Bennett. Illustrated by Cornelius De Witt. New York: Simon and Schuster. Pp. 125. \$2.50.

The purpose of this book as stated in the foreword is "to stimulate and encourage the curiosity of children about their world." The cover, end sheets stressing important inventors, science and experiment, exploration and discovery, and the text and pictures carry out this purpose admirably. It is the "leading on" type of book and would be an asset to any child's library.

Every elementary schoolroom should have a copy for browsing. The language is simple and clear and the colored illustrations are in such

detail that the whys and wherefores will be clarified. This is a must book for the seven-to twelve-year-olds.

THE PICTURE STORY OF HOLLAND. By Dola De Jong. Pictures by Gerard Hordyk. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock. Unpaged. \$2.

The contribution of this book is the establishment of a friendly feeling for "our next door neighbors" in Europe and in Holland specifically. The pictures seem a little confusing until one studies them carefully, then they become a real part of the fascinating text. This is a "read-together" book for it will stimulate discussion. Because it was written by a woman born in Holland it carries with it the authentic flavor of this picture-book country. A delightful book for children from eight to twelve.

BIG TREE. Written and illustrated by Mary and Conrad Buff. New York: Viking. Pp. 80. \$3.

This story of a Sequoia tree called Wawona, the biggest tree in the world, is dedicated "to the children of the future for whom these trees are saved." Preceding many of the chapters are interleaves giving the history of these giant trees, then the story continues until it ends with the founding of the National Park where Wawona and the other big trees grow more majestic year after year. One feels proud that at last man came to his senses and preserved these trees for all time. Children from nine on will enjoy this book and adults should be glad to add it to their libraries.

LITTLE WONDER BOOKS. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Company. Twenty cents each. Fifteen cents each for ten or more.

Ninety different titles are presented in the new wonder book series. Each book covers a single unit of material in the science or social studies field, with sample titles such as *How Animals Travel*, *Simple Machines*, *America's Holidays*, *Pioneering in Communicating*, *The Weather*, and *People of Latin America*. The books supply real facts on the child's level, and are attractively lowpriced. Photographs are used for illustrative material. The books are planned for use with six- to twelve-year-olds.

Research ABSTRACTS . . .

LEARNING TO USE HEARING AIDS. By Arthur I. Gates and Rose E. Kusner. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946.

The present study is a follow-up of an earlier one designed to determine the value of mechanical hearing aids for hard of hearing children. Detailed case histories were secured for thirty-eight children of fifty-two who had formerly been given hearing aids. The twenty-one girls and seventeen boys ranged in age from thirteen to eighteen years and all but four were attending either junior or senior high school.

Those children who had continued to use their hearing aids enjoyed better health, were nine points higher in I.Q., had fewer personality maladjustments, and came from homes in which the parents were more interested in the child's welfare than was the case with children who had discontinued using their hearing aids. Several of the adolescent girls rejected the aids because of concern over personal appearance. Socially insecure children tended to neglect the mechanical aid because of fear that it would further weaken their social status. The physical discomfort in the use of the aid was much less important than the factor of appearance. The aid wearing group tended to choose school subjects which minimized their hearing deficiency and were more realistic in choice of future vocation than were those who rejected their aids.

The authors indicate that teachers and especially parents can strongly influence children in using hearing aids by helping establish wholesome and realistic attitudes toward the matter. They point out further that the aids could be made less conspicuous by using flesh-colored plastic, flatter batteries and microphones.—J.A.H.

CHILDREN'S CHOICES OF FAVORITE BOOKS: A Study Conducted in Ten Elementary Schools. By Paul Witty, Ann Coomer, and Dilla McBean. *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, May, 1946, 37: 266-278. Some eight thousand children from kindergarten through grade eight were asked to name their favorite books. Different titles mentioned reached a total of 4,300, ranging in quality from

the *Bobbsey Twins* to books receiving the Caldecott and Newbery Awards.

In the kindergarten and primary grades, stories about animals, wild or tame, real or fanciful, stood out as favorites. The children expressed high regard for a succession of stories about a well loved animal character. Second in popularity were fairy tales. Enjoyment of humor was revealed in affection for such books as *Little Black Sembo*, *Millions of Cats*, *Make Way for Ducklings*.

The authors point out that the quality of books chosen was relatively high and that many titles which were favorites of earlier generations are still popular. They regret that poetry has found so little favor with children.—J.A.H.

THE EMOTIONAL BACKGROUND OF THIRTY CHILDREN WITH READING DISABILITIES WITH EMPHASIS ON ITS COERCIVE ELEMENTS. By W. H. Missildine. *The Nervous Child*, July, 1946, 5: 263-272.

A study was made of the case histories of thirty children referred to a psychiatric service connected with the Johns Hopkins Hospital. The cases were unselected except that all had intelligence quotients of at least 90 and possessed unimpaired eyesight and hearing. Half of the children were referred to the clinic because of poor progress in school, thirty per cent because they were behavior problems, and only twenty per cent because of specific reading disabilities. Eighty-five per cent of the group was boys.

Four of the thirty children showed strong sibling jealousy reactions caused by a baby in the home who was receiving the attention the boy had earlier received. One-third of the mothers of the children are described by the author as critical, hostile, rejecting persons. Ten other mothers are described as tense, coercive, and perfectionistic. Several of the fathers were generally away from home; some took no interest in the child. In general, the fathers did not compensate for the undesirable influence of the mothers.

Professional observers described the children as polite, cooperative, and friendly, but at the same time insecure, restless, restrained, and unhappy. The majority of the children did not get along well with their peers. The author con-

cludes that reading disability is with many children a symptom of underlying emotional illness and that specific remedial techniques may prove ineffective if the basic maladjustment is left uncorrected.—J.A.H.

A STUDY OF THE SOCIO METRIC PROCESS AMONG SIXTH-GRADE CHILDREN. By Merl E. Bonney. *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, September, 1946, 37: 359-371.

Fifty-five sixth-grade pupils in three Texas schools were asked to make two lists: first, the names of other children in their classrooms with whom they played most often; and second, the names of classmates whom they would prefer to have on their side in a Quiz Kid program. The author divided the total number of children into two groups with regard to each of the two criteria of selection, i.e., those being chosen many times and those few times. Analysis of the choices of playmates indicated that those in the low group were chosen few times by members of their own group and very infrequently by those of the high group. When choices concerned participants in the proposed Quiz Kid program, the votes went almost entirely to those in the high or popular group.

The author interprets his data to suggest that play has a greater socializing value than activities which involve knowledge and academic skill; that one of the best ways to help a child who receives little social acceptance is to teach him to play games. He notes that children who differ considerably in their academic achievements and skill may play together successfully and happily.—J.A.H.

THE EFFECTS OF NOISE ON SCHOOL CHILDREN. By George W. Hartmann. *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, March, 1946, 37: 149-160.

The author reports a review of "most of the pertinent sources of the last thirty years" relating to the effects of noise. "The great weight of evidence," he says, "indicates that performances which are prized individually and socially tend to be reduced in various degrees in an auditory environment marked by annoying and distracting sounds." The efficiency of mental work, particularly complex types, is generally lowered to a noticeable degree. Even when highly-motivated pupils maintain equivalent achievement under noisy and silent conditions, they do so only at a price, by putting forth additional effort.

Noise has a direct effect in preventing the pupils from hearing what the teacher or another child is trying to say and also interferes with attention and concentration. Protection against distracting noise is compared to air conditioning, since both increase the feeling of comfort and well-being which is conducive to achievement. The author suggests that in post-war building programs every reasonable effort should be made to reduce unnecessary noise.—J.A.H.

THE RELATION OF EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT TO INTELLECTUAL FUNCTION. By J. Louise Despert and Helen Oexle Pierce. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, August, 1946, 34: 3-56.

Changes in Stanford-Binet (Terman-Merrill revision) test scores of 39 nursery school children are compared with independent evaluations of their emotional adjustments. These children were tested 2 or 3 times during attendance at the Payne Whitney Nursery School. They were also observed by a psychiatrist, in the nursery school, and in projective doll play situations. On the basis of their changes in retest I.Q.'s the children were divided into stable and unstable I.Q. groups. Twenty-two changed 10 or more points; of these 12 children changed upward and 10 downward. The stable group, with changes of less than 10 I.Q. points, contained 17 children. Brief descriptions of all cases are given with more complete summaries of illustrative cases representing each group.

Among the stable I.Q. group there was little relation between I.Q. change and prediction from the personality studies. However, in those whose changes were ten or more points "there was a close parallel between emotional adjustment and psychometric test findings." The emotional maladjustments were not always evident in the psychometric situation, and they were sometimes found in tensions in the home when nursery school adjustment was fairly good. One of the factors most frequently related to a lowered I.Q. was the birth of a sibling and the child's concurrent difficulties in accepting this rival for parental affection.

Although there is considerable correspondence between these changes in intellectual function and emotional tensions, a careful study of the evidence shows that there are quite a few exceptions in predicting the amount of change, and even its direction. Therefore prediction for individual children is not certain.—Nancy Bayley, University of California, Berkeley.

By MARY E. LEEPER

News HERE AND THERE . . .

New A.C.E. Branches

Southwest Missouri State College Association for Childhood Education, Springfield, Missouri.

Purcell Association for Childhood Education, Oklahoma.

Second Oklahoma City Association for Childhood Education, Oklahoma.

Reinstated:

State College Association for Childhood Education, Jonesboro, Arkansas.

Houston Association for Childhood Education, Texas.

Alta M. Owens

Alta M. Owens, a life member of the Association for Childhood Education, died February 21 in Duluth, Minnesota. Miss Owens, a kindergarten teacher in Duluth public schools for forty years, was a charter member of the Duluth Association for Childhood Education and twice its president. Since her retirement several years ago, she has continued her active work for the welfare of young children.

A.C.E. Study Conference

Twelve hundred workers in the field of childhood education attended the 1947 Study Conference of the Association for Childhood Education at Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, April 7 to 11. They discussed problems of the elementary school, made field studies in the local schools and community, and planned definite action to further the education and well-being of children two to twelve.

Those attending the meeting — teachers, school administrators, parents, and community workers—participated in the discussions and field experiences of the nine study groups on specific problems; attended one of the interest groups concerned with children at a particular age level; and gave attention to the problems and activities of the 505 A.C.E. branches.

At the general sessions, speakers outlined the significant trends in educational thinking and practices, gave reviews of current legislation and current research on education, and focused attention on the close relationship between what goes on in school rooms and world affairs today.

Teachers from England, France, Finland, Mexico, and Panama were present.

"Oklahoma Night," with its chuck-wagon dinner, fun and frolic, rope twirling, and Indian dances, will long be remembered.

A full report of the Conference, written by delegates, is given in the April-May A.C.E. *Branch Exchange*. Single copies sent on request.

New A.C.E. Officers

At the 1947 Study Conference and Annual Meeting, four new officers were elected:

Winifred E. Bain, President of Wheelock College, Boston, became president.

Myra Woodruff, State Department of Education, Albany, New York, became vice-president representing nursery school.

Neith Headley, School of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, became vice-president representing kindergarten.

Merle Gray, Supervisor of Elementary Education, Hammond, Indiana, became vice-president representing intermediate.

Officers remaining on the Executive Board to complete their terms are Bernice Baxter, vice-president representing primary; Dorothy Koehring, secretary-treasurer.

1947-49 A.C.E. Plan of Action

The Association for Childhood Education works for the education and well-being of children by (1) promoting desirable educational conditions, programs and practices in the elementary school; (2) raising the standard of preparation and encouraging continued professional growth of teachers in this field; (3) actively cooperating with all groups interested in children in the home, the school, and the community; and (4) informing the public of the needs of children and how the school program is adjusted to fit those needs.

To move forward in its broad program, the Association biennially, through democratic referendum to its members, surveys the needs of children, selects and defines the more pressing current problems, and adopts a practical program of action to guide its individual members, branch organizations, and the international Association in their work for children.

The Plan of Action for 1947-49 developed through correspondence with branches, discussion in Branch Forums at the April Study Conference, and adopted by the formal vote of delegates on April 10 outline steps of action under these five heads:

- I. Inadequate School Facilities Must Be Remedied
- II. Congested School Programs Must Be Eliminated

III. Shortage of Teachers Must Be Overcome
IV. Worthy Human Relations Must Be Developed
V. Child Health, Mind and Body, Must Be Improved

For copies of the 1947-49 A.C.E. Plan of Action, write to A.C.E. Headquarters, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

New A.C.E. Publications

The second 1947 membership-service bulletin, *Knowing When Children Are Ready to Learn*, was mailed to all individual members and to officers of branches in late March. The title expresses its purpose clearly. Teachers and parents who sincerely seek to know when children—infants to twelve-year-olds—are ready to learn new skills, to explore the world about them, to think for themselves, to evaluate their own performance, to attack problems, to share and cooperate will find real help in this bulletin.

Contributors are: Gretchen Wulffing, Public Schools, Oakland, California; Mollie and Russell Smart, Cornell University; Mary Woods Bennett, Mills College, California; Ruth K. Webb, Public Schools, Washington, D. C.

This thirty-two-page bulletin may be purchased for fifty cents from the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Children's Books—For Seventy-Five Cents or Less is the new title of the 1947 revision of the booklet known as *Children's Books—For Fifty Cents or Less*. The number of pages has been increased from twenty-four to thirty-six, and the price from twenty-five cents to thirty-five cents. This classified guide to inexpensive, approved books for children is compiled by Dorothy Kay Cadwallader, principal of the Robbins Elementary School, Trenton, New Jersey.

Orders for the bulletin may be sent to A.C.E. Headquarters in Washington.

Are You Qualified to Become a Teacher? This illustrated six-page folder planned by the members of the A.C.E. Committee on Teacher Preparation, gives direct answers to some of the questions asked by high school students who are seeking information about careers open to them.

What qualities must you have to become a teacher? What will teaching do for you? These and other questions are answered jointly by Frank Hubbard, director of Research of the National Education Association, and Peter Becker, Jr., business adviser of the A.C.E. It is believed that A.C.E. branches and individuals will see that wide distribution is given to this timely leaflet.

Single copies on request. In lots of twenty-five and over, two cents each.

Newsletter on Teacher Education

The first volume of the *Newsletter of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education* was issued in February. Earlier newsletters of this type were published first by the Commission on Teacher Education; later by the Committee on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education.

The *Newsletter* now launched has a broader scope. The C.C.T.E., which sponsors it, consists of eighteen educational associations representing a very wide range of concerns and activities. The A.C.E. is one of the eighteen. What these agencies are doing and thinking with respect to the improvement of teacher education and other organized developments in the world of teacher education will be reported.

This statement is taken from the first issue:

Now and in the endless future all who are dedicated to the cause of teacher education must stand and work together. Cooperation is indispensable. So is effective exchange of information in order that each worker in the cause may learn quickly from the experiences of others. It is to the promotion of cooperation and to the exchange of information on the widest possible scale that this *Newsletter* will be devoted.

The *Newsletter* is published bi-monthly during the academic year. It is available without charge upon request. Address communications to: The Chairman, Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, 525 West 120th Street, New York 27, New York.

A.A.S.A. in Atlantic City

The needs of young children were given special consideration during the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators in Atlantic City, March 1-6.

Luncheon—March 3: Maycie K. Southall, president of the Association for Childhood Education, and James L. Hymes, Jr., president of the National Association for Nursery Education, jointly presided over a luncheon discussion meeting. Fifty were present. More would have attended if a larger room had been available.

Afternoon Session—March 3: The Yearbook Committee of the National Society for the Study of Education presented a discussion on Part II of the 46th Yearbook of the Society, entitled *Early Childhood Education*. N. Searle Light, chairman of the Committee, presided.

Afternoon Discussion Group—March 4: A discussion group of the A.A.S.A. presented an informative and lively discussion on the topic: *Administrative Problems Affecting the Education of Young Children*. W. H. Lemmel, super-

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intendent of schools, Baltimore, Maryland, presided. The following members composed the panel:

Edwin W. Broome, Rockville, Maryland
Hazel Gabbard, Washington, D. C.
Roma Gans, New York, New York
Ruth Andrus, Albany, New York
N. Serle Light, Hartford, Connecticut

Children's Radio Listening

Clara S. Logan, radio chairman, Los Angeles, Tenth District Congress of Parents and Teachers, writes in the January, 1947 Service Bulletin of the Federal Radio Education Committee of the work of a Radio Listening Committee. The following excerpts are from Miss Logan's report:

What effect is the radio having on the health and emotions of our children? Surveys reveal that the average boy or girl spends from three and a half to four hours each day listening to radio programs. Is it not time, then, that we give more attention to the type of programs they hear? Should not this out-of-school learning come under the supervision and direction of parents and teachers? We in the Tenth District California Congress of Parents and Teachers believe that it should. We have taken as our motto, "Promote the good. Protest the bad." We realize that many good programs come and go because of lack of recognition and support on the part of listeners. We feel we have a right to ask the radio industry for better radio fare, and they in turn have a right to ask for our support of the good programs they do offer. Our organization has set up a Radio Listening Committee to evaluate radio programs and to publish a radio guide. Our guide has been published in the Down Town Shopping News, a paper which is delivered to every home within seventeen miles from downtown Los Angeles and which has a circulation of over 465,000. This "Guide to Good Listening," as it is called, is a list of programs for family listening. Although our interest is primarily in children's radio listening, we are

(Continued on page 446)

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NEWS NOTES

(Continued from page 445)

aware that children listen more to adult programs than they do to children's programs and that children follow the pattern of adult listening.

Why will not radio listen to the growing criticism of parents, teachers, doctors, district attorneys, and many others—why will it not listen instead of repeating over and over, "We are giving the children what they want." Children deserve the best, and sponsors of radio programs, broadcasters, parents and teachers should be working together, planning together, to provide them with entertainment which will make an enjoyable contribution to their lives. Not only are most of the present serial crime programs for children failing to make any contribution to their lives, they are considered to be harmful to their health and emotions. Our members have given careful consideration to the study, "Children's Reactions to Movie Horrors and Radio Crime," by Dr. Mary I. Preston, *Journal of Pediatrics*, August, 1941. Anyone who believes that children need the excitement provided in radio crime dramas should read the reports of this study.

This year our organization wrote an open letter to radio stations, radio advertising agencies and sponsors of radio programs, which letter was also signed by other associations such as the schools, the library, teacher groups, and the County Medical Association. The letter asked for better radio listening for all the family and for children in particular. Mr. William B. Ryan, manager of KFI, the National Broadcasting System outlet in Los Angeles, has announced that he will not broadcast crime programs until after nine o'clock.

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